Industrial Psychology 114

Industrial Psychology (Universiteit Stellenbosch)

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Industrial Psychology 114

Theme 1: Industrial Psychology — A Broad Overview

Industrial psychology is a subfield of psychology (Psychology: scientific study of human behaviour and all the mental processes that underpin it
— explains what, how and why of human behaviour
— done through the use of scientific enquiry
— an applied science and profession

I-O Psychology defined

The scientific study of human behaviour in the workplace through the use of psychology theory and methodology for the purpose of ensuring optimal organisational performance

The importance of I-O Psychology in organisations: Organisations transform scarce production factors into goods and services in order to be sustainable this must be done in a profitable manner. People play an important part in this (as production factor, labour and by acting as entrepreneurs). I-O Psychology attempts to influence human behaviour to improve work performance

Terms associated with the field

‘Industrial Psychology’ or ‘Industrial and Organisational Psychology’ in SA and the USA

‘Occupational Psychology’ in the UK

‘Work Psychology’ or ‘Organisational psychology’ in Europe

I-O-P Subfields and Practice Areas

ORGANISATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

Deals with the organisation as a system involving individuals and groups, and the

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structure and dynamics of the organisation

Aims is to facilitate worker adjustment, satisfaction and productivity, as well as organisational efficiency

Main focus activities

- Leadership and motivation
- Organisational climate, culture and trust
- Organisational change and transformation

PERSONNEL PSYCHOLOGY

Focuses on the scientific study and application of individual differences in the workplace

Main focus activities:
— Assessment and appraisal of employees
— Selection, placement and promotion of employees
— Training and development
— Reward system
— Construction and validation of assessment processes and instruments etc

Personnel I-O psychologists critical in informing key HR practices

CAREER PSYCHOLOGY

Focus is on issues to do with the nature of work, career development, the nature of employment (and unemployment) and any other career related issues at work

Special interest is on factors influencing individuals in their careers

CONSUMER PSYCHOLOGY

Also referred to as ‘economic’ and ‘market’ psychology

Concerned with understanding, explaining and predicting the psychological aspects (and behaviour) of consumers or buyers

Focus is on the needs, values, beliefs, attitudes, interests and other personal attributes that facilitate decision-making and motivation in buyers as they search for, purchase, use and evaluate goods and services

Acquired knowledge is applied in advertising and marketing strategies

ERGONOMICS

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Also referred to as ‘engineering and human factors psychology’

Focus is on the optimal fit and interaction between characteristics of employees (human factors) and work environment (technical, social and physical)

Through designing work, equipment and workplace with special consideration of human factors

Generally the field also informs the design of homes, buildings and various forms of transport

EMPLOYMENT RELATIONS

Also Labour Relations or Industrial Relations

Deals with the dynamics, communication processes and conflict resolution issues principally among three parties:
— Employees (as individuals and/or as a group)
— Employers (management and organistaions/industries)
— Government (directly or through legal mechanisms)

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

I-O Research is scientific in nature (scientific inquiry)

Basic or Applied Research

All fields of Industrial Psychology do research

Research contribution considered a major part of any I-O Psychology academics and professionals in South Africa

PSYCHOLOGICAL ASSESSMENT/PSYCHOMETRICS

Acts as a support discipline for the various applied sub-fields

Defined as: the development and utilisation of various types of assessment instruments to measure attributes and behaviours of employees in various work applications such as selection and development

Key aspects include:
— Validity and reliability
— Measurement bias and fairness

EMPLOYEE AND ORGANISATIONAL WELL-BEING

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Deals with issues such as:
— Work stress and conflict
— Positive and disruptive employee and organisational behaviour
— Work dysfunctions
— Employee counseling

Draws mainly from other fields such as health psychology, abnormal psychology, clinical psychology, and consulting psychology

HUMAN RESOURCES MANAGEMENT

It entails the running and management of employees (human resources)

Main activities include:
— Acquiring
— Training
— Appraising
— Motivating
— Rewarding
— Disciplining employees
— Providing and ensuring a safe, ethical and fair working environment for employees

Shift from administrative to strategic role (Strategic Business Partner)

What is the difference between I-O Psychology and HRM?

HRM more about application or management of personnel, business and administrative processes

I-O Psychologist is an expert in human behaviour and related influencing processes that inform the HRM processes

Different training and accreditation requirements

Both are critically important and complementary

Professional training, registration and practice issues in South Africa

Training governed by various bodies in SA
— Academic I-O Psychology Departments at Universities

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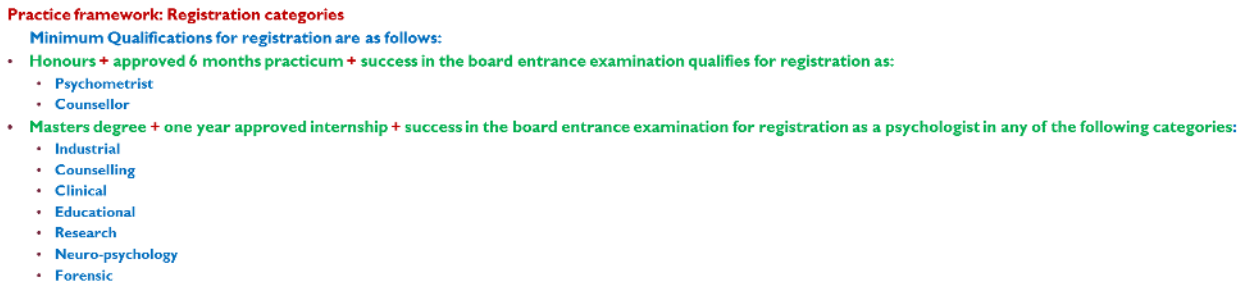
— Society for Industrial Organisational Psychology of South Africa (SIOPSA)
— Professional Board for Psychology (PBP), as a subsection of the HPCSA

Health Professions Council of South Africa (HPCSA) is a statutory body for all the health professions in South Africa
— PBP carters for issues to do with training, practice and conduct of psychologists

All professional psychologists, psychometrists and counsellors must register with the PBP

Practice framework: Registration categories
The practice framework (i.e. registration categories) at the HPCSA (PBP in particular):
— Psychologist, Psychometrist, Counsellor, Intern Psychologist (part of training), Student Psychologist (part of training)


Practice framework: Registration categories
Minimum Qualifications for registration are as follows:
Honours + approved 6 months practicum + success in the board entrance examination qualifies for registration as:
Psychometrist
Counsellor
Masters degree + one year approved internship + success in the board entrance examination for registration as a psychologist in any of the following categories:
Industrial
Counselling
Clinical
Educational
Research
Neuro-psychology
Forensic

Professional registration for HR Practitioners

- **Practice and training controlled by South Africa Board for People Practices (SABPP)**
- **Non-statutory body**
- **Can register in the following categories:**
  - **Master HR Practitioner**
  - **Chartered HR Practitioner**
  - **HR Practitioner**
  - **HR Associate**
  - **HR Technician**

The emergence of I-O Psychology

Major factors contributing to the emergence of I-O Psychology as a discipline:

1) ADVANCES IN PSYCHOLOGICAL TESTING

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Intelligence and ability measurement - two of the early applications of I-O Psychology

Contributors:
— Francis Galton (indicidual differences; psychometrics)
— Alfred Binet and Theodore Simon (Binet-Simon test - 1st practical IQ Test)
— Charles Spearman and Louis Thurstone (Theories of intelligence)

2) WORLD WAR 1 AND 2

The selection and appraisal of military staff
— Army Alpha Test for General Intelligence
— Army Beta Tests for those who were illiterate in English
— Army General Classification Test

Dealing with psychological problems (e.g. treatment of shell shock; C.S. Meyers)

These newly developed techniques later exported to industry

3) INDUSTRIALISATION

Transformed working and commercial landscape

Frederick Taylor and the era of Scientific Management (Taylorism)

Hugo Munsterberg with his book in 1913 Psychology and Industrial Efficiency

The thinking of this era captured by McGregor's Theory X (i.e. lazy employees/strong control measures)

Over time new insights emerged regarding work
— The Hawthorne studies (under Elton Mayo) symbolises a departure from the overemphasis on quantification and efficiency - leading to the 'human relations management'

This "new" thinking is captured by McGregor's Theory Y reflecting a more positive and humanistic approach to people management (i.e. people want more work; human relations)

Contemporary challenges

1) Ethics, social responsibility, environment and sustainability

2) Work place diversity, globilisation and cross-cultural issues

3) New technology, digital media and artificial intelligence

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Theme 2: Psychological Reactions, Behaviour and Performance

Behaviour and organisational performance

To understand how IP can be used to optimise organisational performance (or rather *sustainable* organisations), we first need to understand something about organisational performance

Organisations are complex:

- Performance works on multiple levels: Individual, Group and Organisation
- Performance is multi-dimensional. Organisational effectiveness is a function of various interrelated performance dimensions

The end goal is more than profit: it is a sustainable organisation

- Well-being as a dimension of performance

Behaviour is an integral part of performance

Performance:

Three-level perspective

Organisational performance can be influenced / improved by the I-O Psychologist at the individual, group and organisational level

The three levels of performance are interdependent

The individual level influences the group level, which in turn influences the organisational level

Performance on higher levels of analysis also recursively feed back tot he level of effectiveness achieved on the lower levels of analysis

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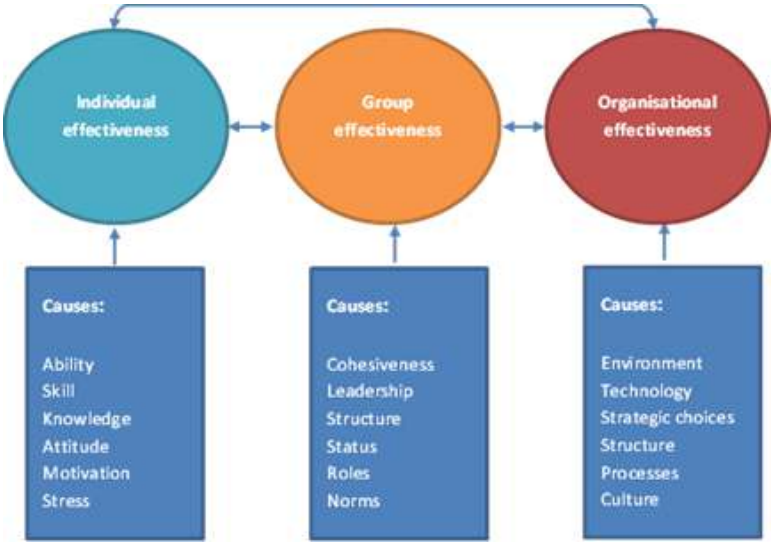
Three-level perspective - determinants

The level of effectiveness on each level is determined by various causes (person-centered and situational factors)

By following a scientific approach, the I-O Psychologist is able to identify and explain the causes of effectiveness

By understanding the causes / determinants of success, as well as the complex interrelationships between them, the I-O Psychologist is able to influence the organisation in a meaningful manner



Muti-dimensional

The Burke and Litwin Model

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The end goal

Sustainability is the core focus of the modern organisation

The scope of practice for Industrial Psychologists is described by the PBP (Professional Board for Psychology) in South Africa as:

- the application of the principles of psychology
- to issues related to the work situation
- of relatively well-adjusted adults
- in order to **optimise individual, group and organisational**
- well-being and effectiveness

Well-being as a performance dimension

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With reference to the sustainability of organisations, the critical question becomes: What are required to sustain performance?

One essential factor in this regard is individual well-being

The inability of the organisation to manage the well-being of employees could lead to excessive stress, burnout and other related symptoms

This in turn impacts on group and organisational effectiveness (core people processes, work unit climate, employee satisfaction and capacity)

And this eventually holds **financial implications** for the organisation

The I-O Psychologist therefore has the responsibilty to not only optimise performance in terms of task performance (e.g. units produced), but also in terms of well-being

Performance: The centrality of behaviour

Individual Behaviour

Task performance (accomplishment of job tasks)
— Performance on the task itself, i.e. the technical aspects of the job

Contextual performance / also referred to as Organisational Citizenship Behaviour
— Performance over and above the technical aspects of the job
- Persisting with enthusiasm and extra effort to complete task activities
- Volunteering to carry out task activities that are not formally part of own job
- Helping and cooperating with others
- Following organisational rules and procedures

Counterproductive work behaviour (the flip-side of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour)
— Withdrawal; absenteeism; damaging relationships etc.

Group Behaviour

Synergies in task performance via the collaborative efforts of individuals
— The emphasis on team effectiveness and innovation

Organisational Behaviour

Culture [accepted ways of doing that shapes individual behaviour]

Strategic choices in the organisation

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Measuring job performance

The total performance of individuals can also be conceptualized as both behaviour (e.g. customer interaction or business acuman) and job outcomes (e.g. sales / customer satisfaction)

Job outcomes refers to achievement of the core responsibilities of the job and are measured through objective measures such as:
— Sales figures
— Production figures
— Quality

Behaviour refers to what a person does in order to achieve these outcomes. (Behaviour in this context is also referred to as competencies)

Job outcome measures are objective, but have the disadvantage of being influenced by other factors unrelated to the person in the job (e.g. sales down because of bad weather). Also some important aspects of job performance (e.g. ethical behaviour) may not be captured by outcomes, e.g. the person meet sales targets, but do so in an unethical manner (behaviour).

Job behaviour, on the other hand, helps to explain (diagnose) why certain job outcomes have not been achieved, e.g. customer satisfaction low (outcome) due to poor service (behaviour) The downside of behaviour is that it can only be measured by subjective methods i.e. by means of rating scales

Both job outcomes and behaviour are important to understand and influence overall job performance

Performance: Implication for I-O Psychologist

A systems approach is required for diagnoses / interventions

A scientific research process is necessary to explain and influence performance (scientist-practitioner)

The ultimate goal is sustainability; and employee wellness forms an important component of this

The human behaviour in organisational performance is not restricted to task performance: it is an integral part of individual, team and organisation performance

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Influencing behaviour

I-O-P studies behaviour with the aim of **influencing** the behaviour

Basically, 2 broad options exist to influence behaviour:

1) Direct Approach [focus on the behaviour itself; and less on the underlying cause]

According to learning theory, conditioning and reinforcement can be used for shaping and controlling behaviour
— Reward good behaviour and punish bad behaviour
— The social learning perspective further adds the social aspect of learning (i.e. observe how others are rewarded / punished)

Performance appraisal interventions
— Train and develop people to demonstrate specific behaviours

2) Indirect approach [focus on determinants of behaviour]

Focus on psychological reactions — Attitudes and other psychological states — Emotions
— Perception

Focus on individual differences

Environment features — Social influences — Job designs

Focus on psychological reactions

Psychological reactions refers to what happens in a person's mind before, during and after exercising behaviour. It is therefore closely linked to behaviour

It includes thoughts and feelings — some enduring / stable and others fluctuating

Psychological reactions are influenced by individual differences (i.e. personality traits, personal goals), as well as by environmental features in the job (e.g. supervision, team support and autonomy in the role)

Psychological reactions therefore play a central role in understanding and influencing behaviour

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Psychological Reactions: *Attitudes and Behaviour*

What is an attitude?

Evaluative statements or beliefs about something or someone

Directed towards a target (person, object or event)

Represent the degree to which the target is perceived favourably or unfavourably

Three components of an attitude

Cognitive (thoughts or beliefs about the target)

Affective (emotions associated with the attitudes)

Behaviour intentions

Linking attitude and behaviour

Cognitive dissonance theory

When attitude and behaviour are dissonant or inconsistent, the discomfort associated with that dissonance motivates people to act to reduce it

Theory of planned behaviour (TPB)

Attitude towards behaviour (ATB) — The degree to which performance of the behaviour is positively or negatively valued. It also includes the evaluation of the outcomes of performing the behaviour of interest

Actual behavioural control (ABC) — The extent to which an individual has the skills, resources, and other relevant prerequisites to perform the behaviour of interest. Also affects / determines perceived behavioural control (PBC)

Intention — An indication of a person's readiness to perform a given behaviour. It is considered to be the immediate antecedent of behaviour. The intention is based on attitude toward the behaviour, subjective norm and positive intention

Behaviour (B) — The manifest, observable response in a given situation with respect to a given target

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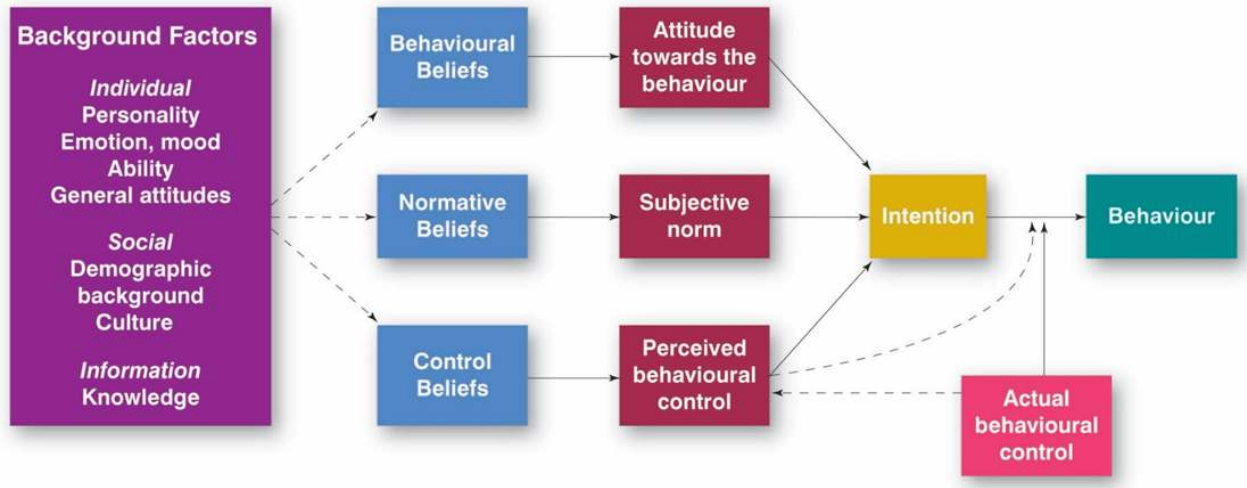


Work Related Attitudes

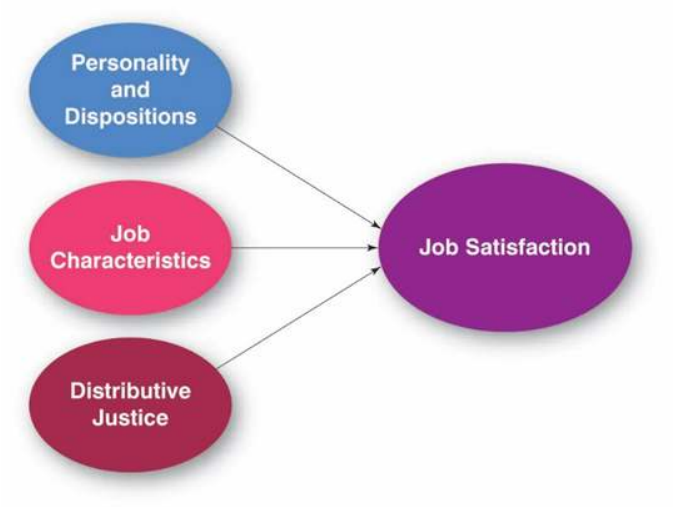
Job Satisfaction

Positive and negative feelings about the jobs

General, overall feelings or composite of specific attitudes

Reflect (subjective) judgement about various aspects of the work (e.g. pay, supervision and workload)

Sources: (1) Personality and dispositions, (2) Job Characteristics, and (3) Distributive justice



Organisational commitment

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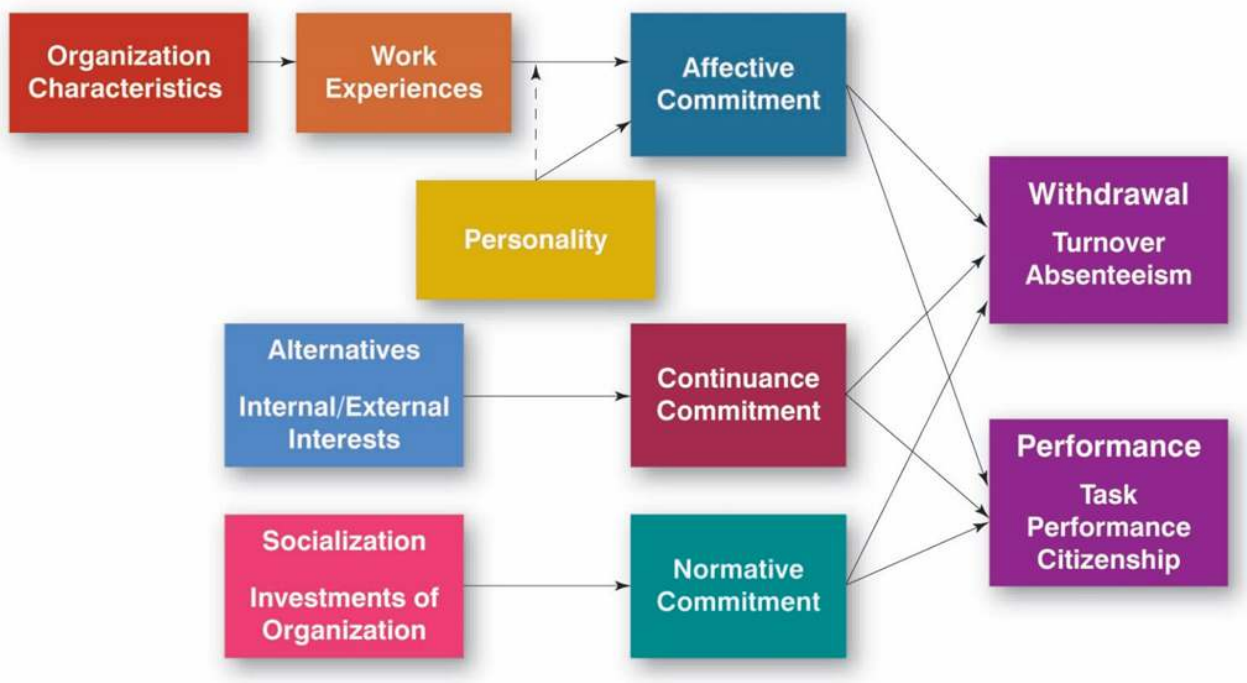
Extent to which an individual feels he / she have a positive relationship with the organisation

The three-component model

— Affective component (goals and values consistent with own)

— Continuance commitment (cost / benefit analysis)

— Normative commitment (sense of obligation)



Employee engagement

Represents the extent to which people are not only satisfied, but also enthusiastic about and actively involved with their job

Job involvement

The extent to which a person identifies with his/her work

Justice and fairness

Distributive justice

— Perceived fairness of the amount compensation received

Procedural justice

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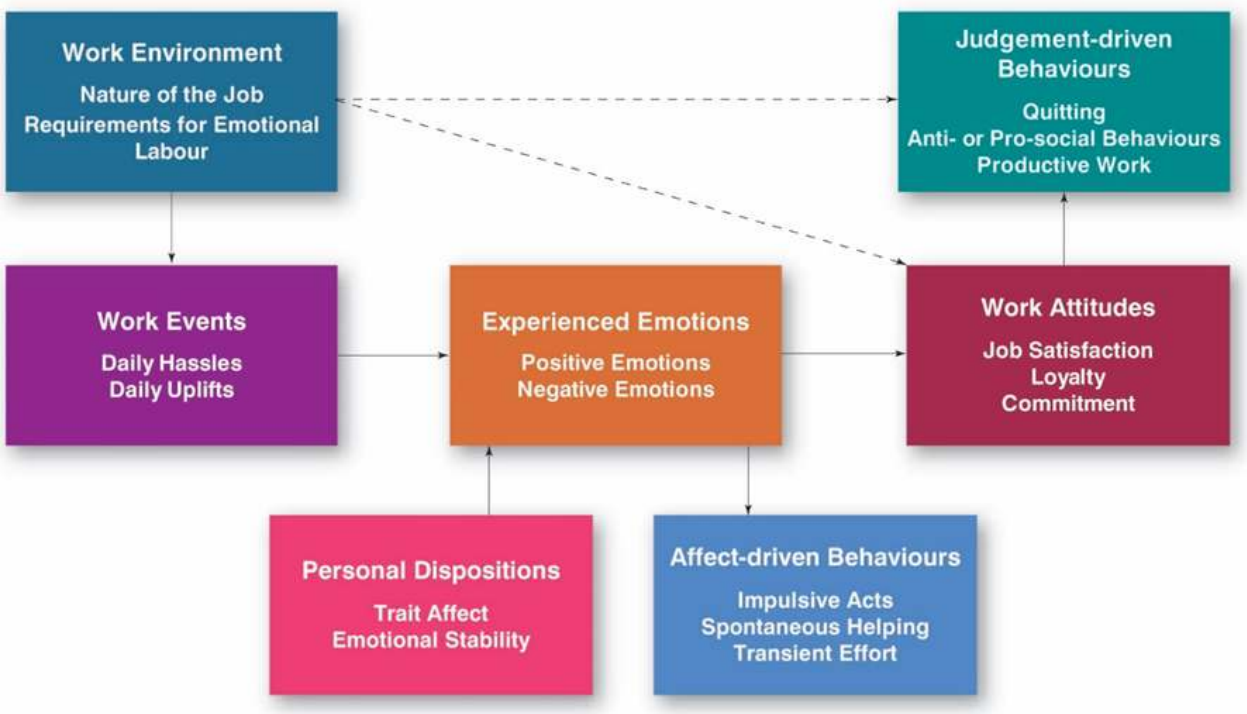
— Perceived fairness of processes and systems used to determine compensation, as well as other human resource decisions

Psychological Reactions: *Emotions and Behaviour*

Emotions affect behaviours directly, as well as indirectly through its effect on attitudes

Source of positive and negative emotions: environmental features, work events and personal dispositions



Psychological Reactions: *Perceptions and Behaviour*

The judgments people make about their environment and people

Influence how they respond

It is thus the perception of reality that counts

Information is processed by the perceiver, and thus filtered through their values, personality traits and emotions

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People also develop shortcuts in perceptions that enable them to quickly make sense of the world around them

— Selective attention

— Stereotyping

— Halo effect

— Contrast effect

— Similar-to-me effects

Theme 3: Individual Differences at Work

Personal Psychology: Focuses on the scientific study and application of individual differences in the work-place

Psychometric's — measuring different attributed of individuals

Indirect approach to influencing behaviour — focus on individual differences

Psychological reactions are influenced by individual differences

The impact of individual differences is function of context

Importance of individual differences not static but dynamic

Introduction to individual differences

People differ in various ways and the differences have implications for behaviour and/or performance

I-O Psychologists interest limited to psychological differences... especially those related to work behaviour and/or performance

We are implicit scientists everyday — help us make sense of the world

Understanding the effects of individual differences on work behaviour requires a full and appreciation of the theory of human behaviour and NOT implicit science

The relevance of individual differences to work and work performance depends on context and time

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Intelligence

What is intelligence: *...a very general mental capability that, among other things, involves the ability to reason, plan, solve, problem, think abstractly, comprehend complex ideas, learn quickly and learn from experience. It is not merely book learning, a narrow academic skill, or test-taking smarts. Rather it reflects a broader and deeper capability for comprehending our surroundings — 'catching-on', 'making sense' of things, or 'figuring out' what to do*

Also known as Cognitive Ability or General Mental Intelligence (GMA)

Intelligence - Models

General intelligence / Ability Models

- Francis Galton and Alfred Binet
- Spearman's G

Specific Ability Models (Structure of Cognitive ability)

- Thurstone rejected the G notion altogether and proposed seven primary abilities
- More related to / consistent with common occupational tests in organisations
- Vernon proposed verbal / educational and spatial / mechanical
- Cartel proposed Fluid ability and Crystalized ability

A **hierarchical model** present both together, General (g) at the top of the hierarchy with specific ability facets underneath

The hierarchical model

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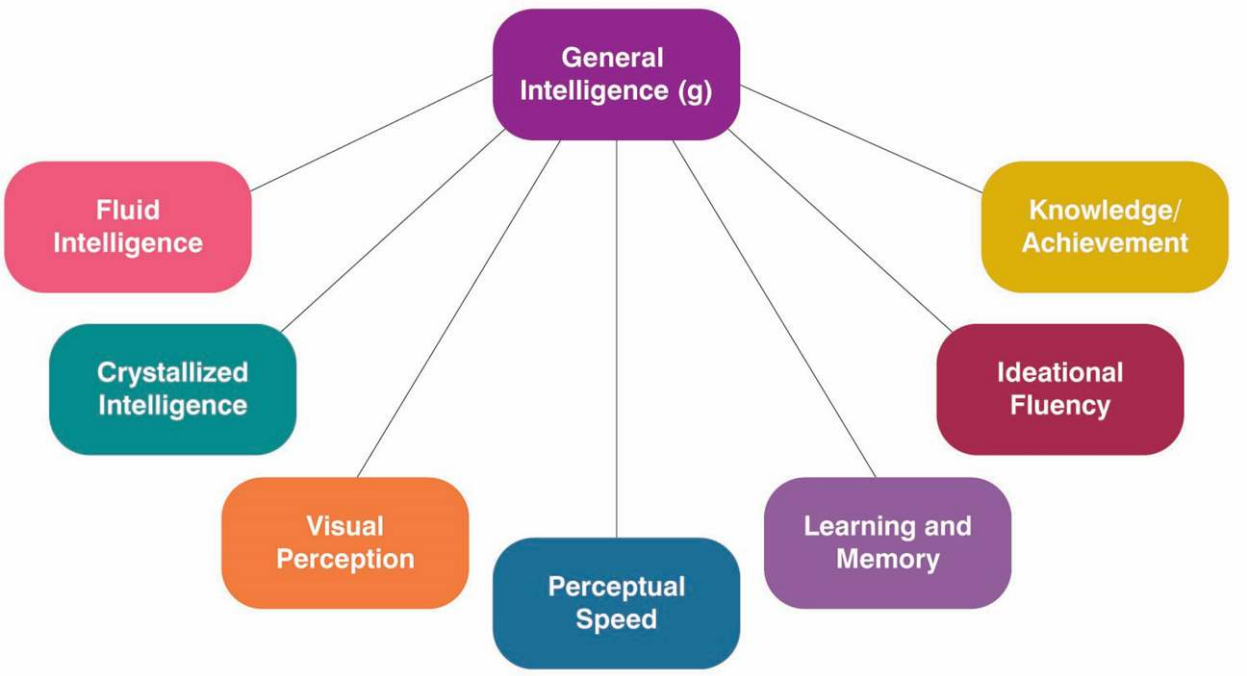

Intelligence (Cognitive Ability) and Work

There is a correlation between cognitive ability and performance

... Cognitive ability impacts on the acquisition of knowledge about the job, including the speed with which the knowledge is acquired [& transferred]

The validity of the relationship varies with job complexity

The relationship is moderated by context and time

Multiple Intelligence's

The multiple intelligence school of thought represents what cognitive theories 'fails to' capture: practical and social (Thorndike) intelligences

Emotional intelligence EI/EQ is one example of multiple-intelligence and is defined as:

- The ability to perceive accurately, appraise, and express emotions; the ability to access and/or generate feelings when they facilitate thought; the ability to understand emotion and emotional knowledge; and the ability to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth

EI is viewed as a powerful alternative to general intelligence (g) in predicting success in life and work

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EI is assumed to be a strong predictor of managerial and leadership success — EQ measures used in the selection of managers and leaders

Personality

We are, as humans, implicit personality theorists — everyday we seek to understand others' personality and to be understood

Personality can be defined as an individual's unique constellation of consistent behavioural traits

Personality theories

Characteristics of good theories

- Description
- Explanation
- Empirical validity
- Testable concepts
- Comprehensiveness
- Heuristic value
- Applied value

Personality theories

- Personality and traits (trait theory)
- Behavioural school
    - Social learning theory
- Psychoanalysis school
    - Psychoanalytic theory

Personality and personality traits

The Trait Theory bolsters the widely accepted definition of personality by emphasising the assumptions that personality is:

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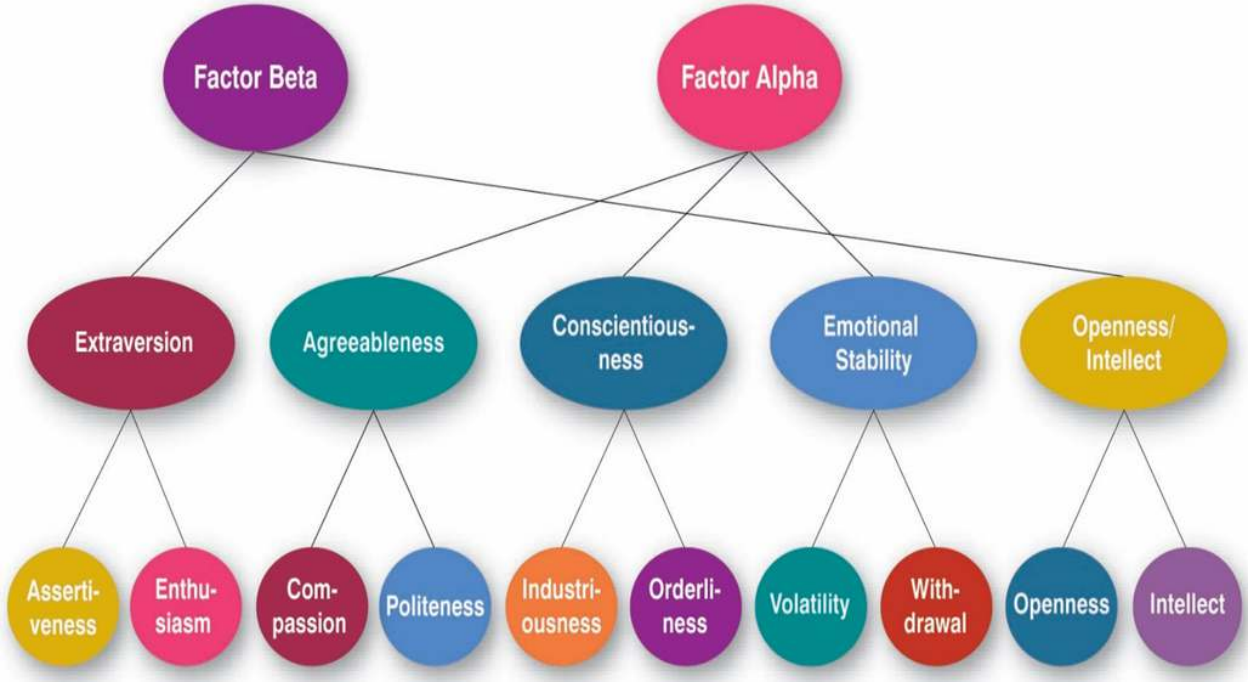
- Internal (its not the overt part which we see)
- Stable (unchanged over time)
- Consistent (apply across different situations)
- Different (unique to an individual)

Situational theorists, however, challenge and/or expand the trait theory by emphasising the importance of context [*situational consistency*]:

- In contrast to the idea that traits apply across different situations, they argue that traits are coherent responses to particular situational cues
- People behave differently in different situations

The Big Five Personality Theory



Personality Development Theories

PSYCHOANALYSIS

- Sigmund Freud
- The ‘id’ represents basic drive for instant gratification

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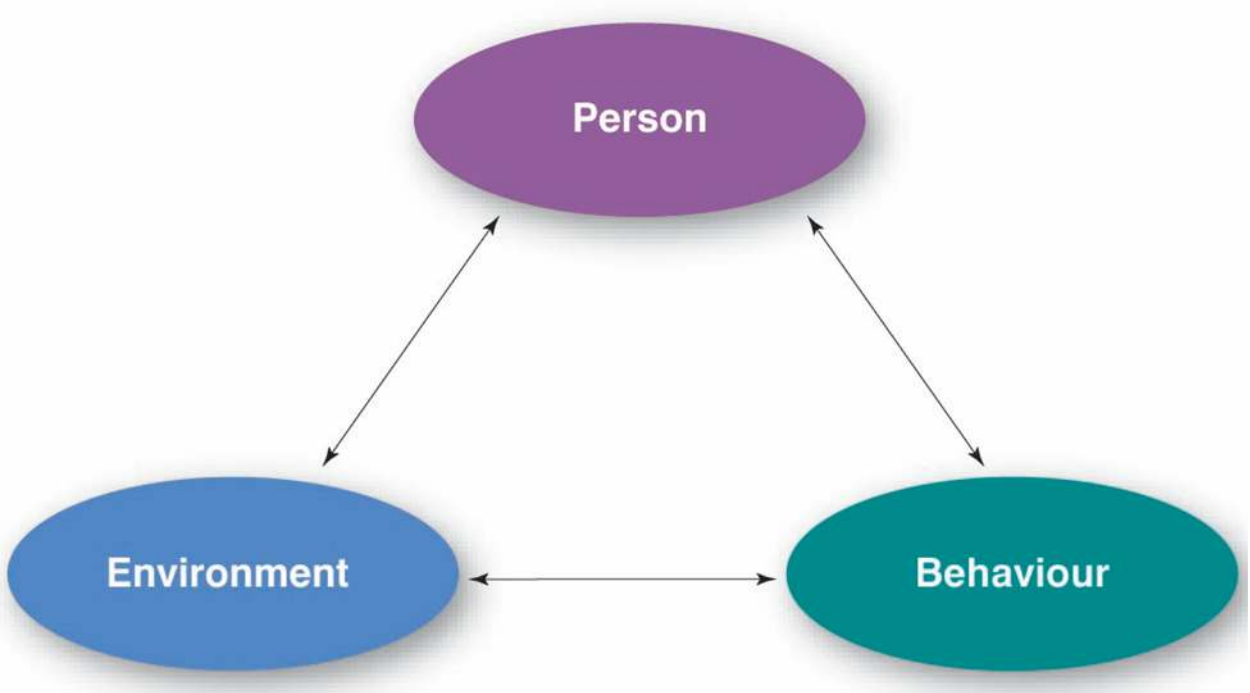
- The ‘ego’ mediates basic desires on the reality principle
- The “super-ego” represents social conscience

BEHAVIOURISM

- Pavlov & Skinner
- Explores how behaviour is shaped by the environment — conditioning
- Do not consider internal processes

SOCIAL LEARNING / RECIPROCAL DETERMINISM

- Albert Bandura
- Person, environment and behaviour
- Observational learning
- Self-efficacy



Personality and Work

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Personality [traits] influences job performance through the effect it has on psychological reactions / states (attitudes) as well as work-related behaviour, especially organisational citizenship behaviours. Specific examples of both include:

- Job satisfaction and commitment
- Occupational interests
- Team processes
- Leadership behaviour

Personality traits predict various forms of performance, i.e. specific personality traits are more or less important in different jobs

The Big Five Model *Die Groot Vyf-model*	
Extraversion *Ekstroversie*	the extent to which a person is outgoing and sociable versus quiet and reserved *die mate waarin 'n persoon uitgaande en gesellig is teenoor stil en teruggetrokke*
Agreeableness *Inskiklikheid*	the extent to which a person is warm and trusting, versus cold and unfriendly *die mate waarin 'n persoon warm en vertrouend is teenoor koud en onvriendelik*
Conscientiousness *Pligsgetrouheid*	the extent to which a person is organized and dependable, versus impulsive and disorganized *die mate waarin 'n persoon georganiseer en betroubaar is teenoor impulsief en ongeorganiseerd*
Emotional stability *Emosionele stabiliteit*	the extent to which a person is calm and stable, versus neurotic and anxious *die mate waarin 'n persoon kalm en stabiel is, teenoor neuroties en angstig*
Openness/intellect *Openheid / intellek*	the extent to which a person is imaginative and open to new experiences, versus narrow-minded and unimaginative *die mate waarin 'n persoon verbeeldingryk en oop is vir nuwe ervarings , teenoor eng en verbeeldingloos*

Personality, Cognitive Ability and Work

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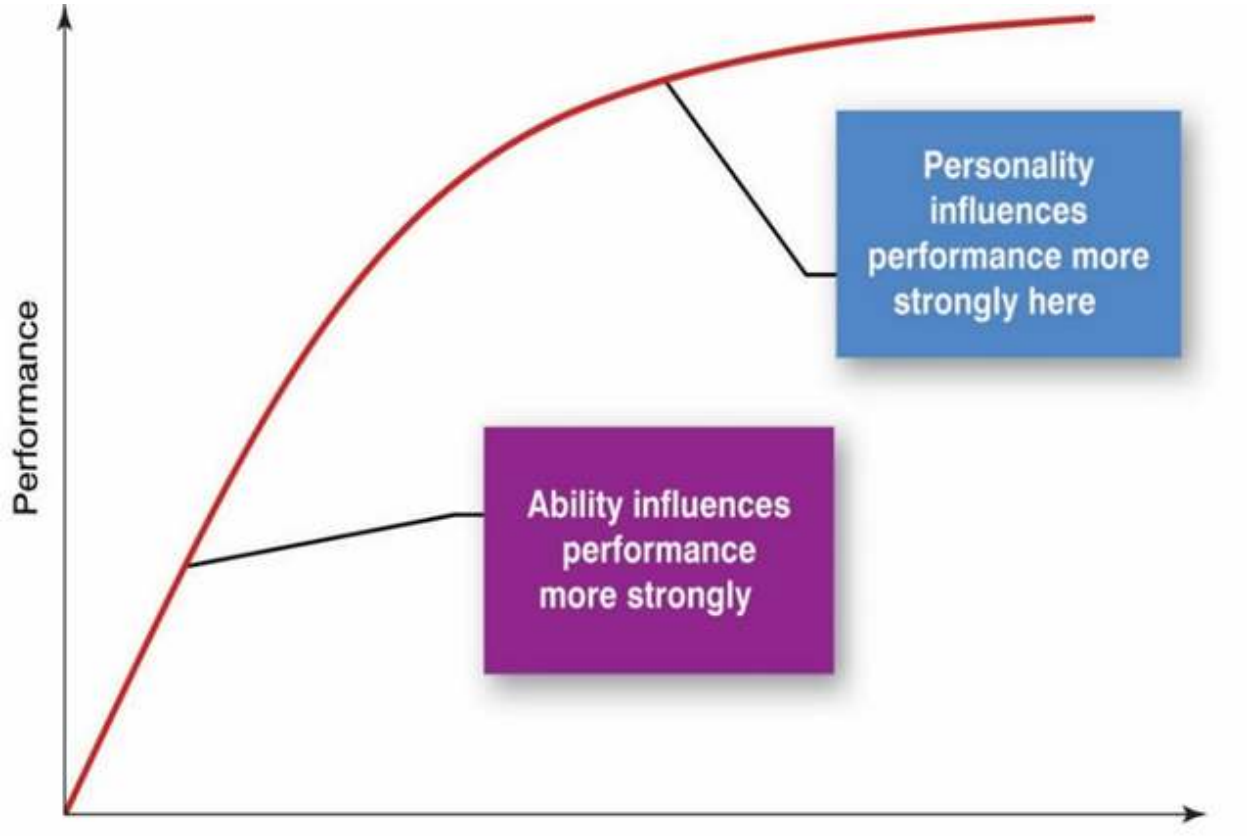
Cognitive ability is critical in the learning phase of the job, but the influence thereof decreases as jobs become more familiar and practiced

Over time, other factors such as motivation and personality become increasingly more important



Personality traits relates more to organisational contextual performance / organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB)

Emotions

- Emotions
  - discrete reactions (e.g. anger; joy) directed towards a specific target or cause
- Moods
  - a global positive (pleasant) or negative (unpleasant) feeling
  - not focused on a specific cause

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    - may last for a few moments or even for a few weeks
- Dispositional affect
    - represents the general tendency to experience positive or negative feelings, moods and emotions
    - distinguish between positive and negative affectivity

Emotions and Work

Although we distinguish between emotions and personality, it is actually intertwined. The concepts of Core Self-Evaluations and Psychological Capital are examples of this

Dispositional affect is more closely associated with personality

Both, personality and emotions have implications for work-related behaviours, positive or negative

Emotions, Personality and Work: Core Self-Evaluations

The Core Self-Evaluation (CSE) represents a stable personality trait and encompasses the way in which individuals fundamentally see themselves. These evaluations happen at a subconscious level

The CSE construct is a composite of FOUR key affective tendencies [attributes]:

- Self esteem: extent to which individuals feel good about themselves
- Self-efficacy: how confident a person feels about his / her capabilities with regard to a specific task
- Locus of control: the extent to which people feel in control of events that affects their lives
- Neuroticism: the tendency to experience negative emotions and thoughts

In general, people high on CSE tend to be more confident, positive and feel in control compared to those with low CSE

CSE associated with job satisfaction as it influences how people perceive their job characteristics (positively versus negatively)

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People with high CSE tend to seek and attain intrinsically more rewarding jobs — due to more self-belief

High Neuroticism (low CSE) is associated with an avoidant approach to work tasks, activities and behavioural strategies compared to those with low Neuroticism (& high on CSE)

Overall CSE has a long-term impact on success and happiness at work

Emotions, Personality and Work: Psychological Capital

Psychological Capital (PsyCap)

- Builds from Positive Organisational Behaviour (POB)
- PsyCap can be defined as: An individual's positive psychological state of development that is characterised by: (1) having confidence (self-efficacy) to take on and put in the necessary effort to succeed at challenging tasks; (2) making a positive attribution (optimism) about succeeding now and in the future; (3) persevering toward goals and, when necessary, redirecting paths to goals (hope) in order to succeed; and (4) when beset by problems and adversity, sustaining and bouncing back and even beyond (resiliency) to attain success
- PsyCap is state-like and therefore open to development
- PsyCap is impactful on work-related performance

Measuring Individual Differences

Unlike the measurement of physical characteristics, measuring individual differences (psychological testing / psychometrics) is more complex as it involves measuring latent constructs (unseen or intangible attributes)

A measure / scale / test (whether its for personality, cognitive ability, emotions or any other psychological construct) should have the following psychometric properties:

- **Reliability** — stability over time and internally consistent
- **Validity** — measure what it claims to measure

Reliability

Methods of estimating reliability:

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- Stability over time
  - Test-Retest Method
    - Test-Retest Reliability: Calculated by correlating measurements taken at time one with measurements taken at time two
- Internal consistency
  - Split-half method
    - Another way to estimate reliability of a test is to pretend that instead of one test, there is two or more
    - E.g. 100-item test and break into two 50-item tests, one consisting of all the even-numbered items, and the other all the odd-numbered items
    - Correlate the total scores of the two subtests
    - Subtest scores correlate highly — test reliable — internal consistency
  - Cronbach's Alpha
    - Is the most commonly used method as it overcomes some of the problems of the split-half method
    - It considers the correlations between the individual test items — to determine the extent to which they measure the same unidimensional concept
- Different raters
  - Inter-Rater Method
    - Different individuals make judgement about a person
    - E.g. ratings of performance of a worker made by several different supervisors
    - Calculate various statistical indices to show level of agreement among raters: Inter-rater reliability

Validity

Focuses on whether a measurement (test) measures the constructs that it claims to measure, and the extent to which the test predicts important criteria

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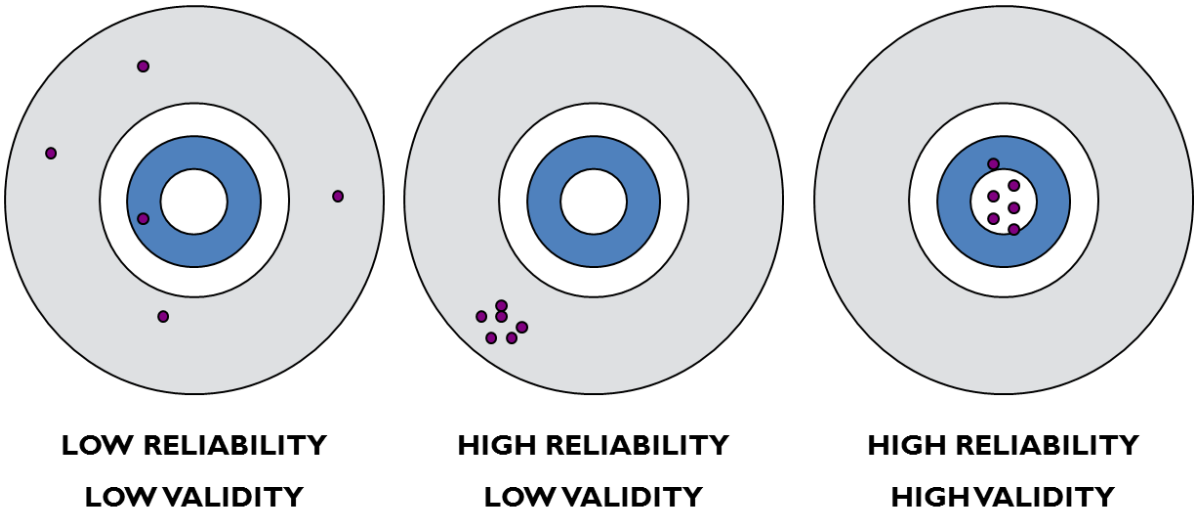
The difference between validity and reliability

Succinctly, *validity* relates to a measurement measuring what it claims to measure

Reliability, on the other hand, relates more to the **consistency** or **stability** of measurement

A bull's eye on the following figure shows what a "perfect" measure looks like



Validity

4 different sources of validity evidence:

- Face validity
- Criterion-related validity
- Content-related validity
- Construct-related validity

Conduct **job analysis** to identify the important **demands** (e.g. tasks, duties) of a job and the **human attributes** necessary to meet these demands

Choose or develop a test (or other measure) to assess those abilities. The test is called a **predictor** — used to forecast another variable

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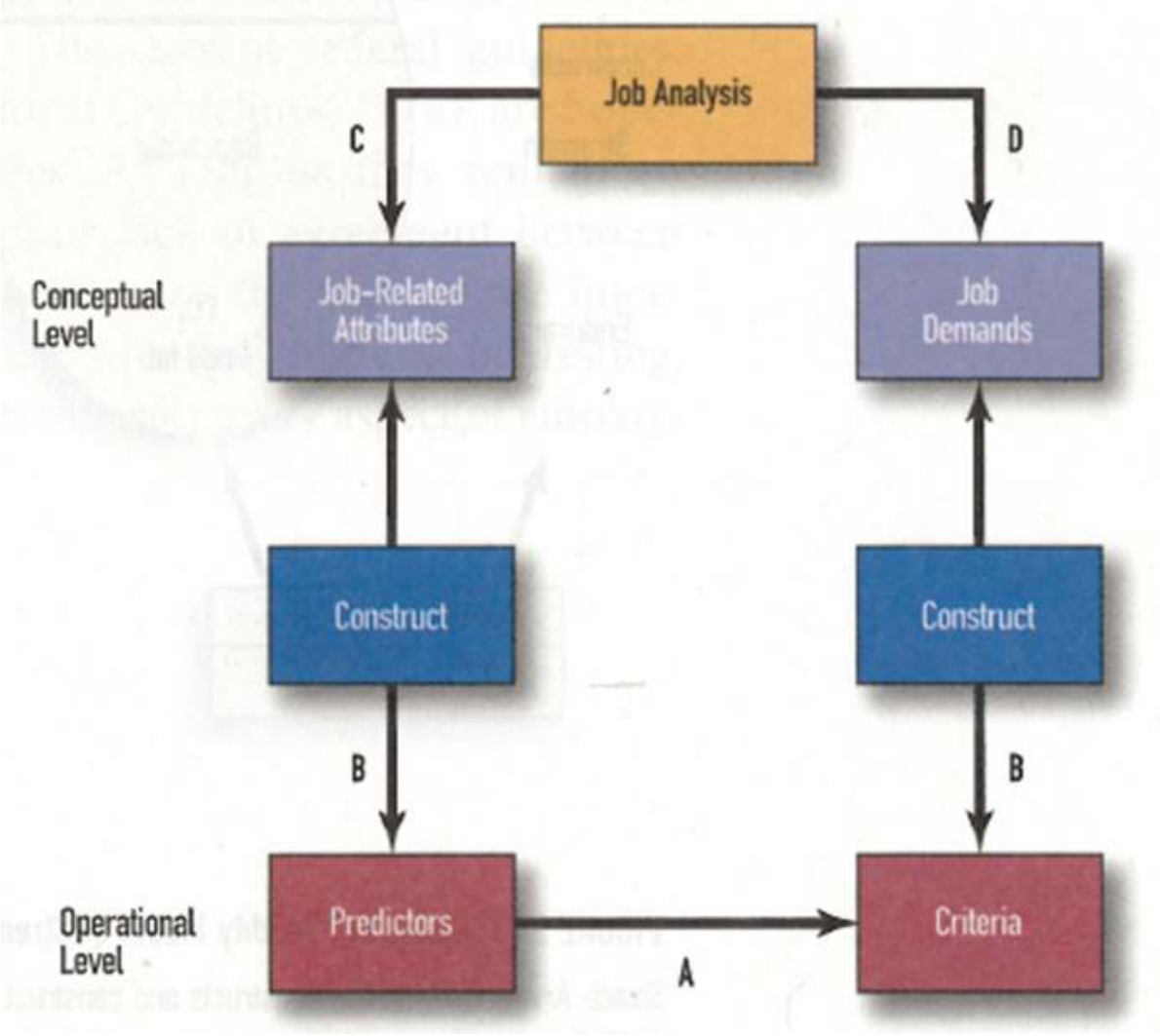
Measure of individual's performance in meeting job demands is called the **criterion** — variable we want to predict

Hypothesis that people who do better on the predictor will also do better on the criterion

Development and validation of the predictive hypotheses in selection



1. Face Validity
   - Validity approach that is demonstrated by the way the test looks in the 'eyes' of the test-takers

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- It is qualitative / subjective judgement about whether the test items appear relevant for their purpose
- The perception of relevance makes test taking worthwhile, thereby increasing test taking motivation

2. Criterion-Related Validity

- Validity approach that is demonstrated by correlating the test score with a performance measure; improves researcher's confidence in the inference that people with higher test scores have higher performance
- Validity coefficient: Correlation between a test score (predictor) and a performance measure (criterion)
- 2 Designs:
  - Predictive Validity
    - Criterion-related validity design in which there is a time lag between collection of the test data and the criterion data
    - *For example:* test all applicants, then hire applicants without using test scores; go back over time and collect performance data
  - Concurrent Validity
    - No lag between gathering the test scores and the performance data; the test is administered to current employees and performance data is collected simultaneously
    - Test scores correlated with performance scores to yield a validity coefficient
    - If, positive and significant — test is made part of process
  - Potential disadvantages:
    - No information about those who are not employed by the organisation
    - Technical implication: range restriction — only scores of those who scored highly on the predictor — correlation coefficient may be artificially depressed and not statistically significant
    - Test-taking motivation may not be as high for those already employed

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3. Content-Related Validity

- Demonstrates that the content of the selection procedure represents an adequate sample of important work behaviours and activities and / or worker KSAOs defined by the job analyses
- Analyse the job to determine most important tasks / duties and abilities to perform those tasks
- Ask subject matter experts
- Analyse their answers to identify or develop possible predictors for testing them

4. Construct-Related Validity

- Focus on the permissibility of decisions or inferences regarding psychological constructs
- Unlike the other forms, construct validity involves performing a range of statistical analyses in order to establish an evident base for the validity of a measurement
- Greater accumulation of evidence, the greater the confidence

Theme 4: Motivation at Work

Motivation Defined

...the study of work motivation is concerned with why people initiate behaviour and effort at work, and the processed that determine its intensity, direction towards goals, and maintenance over time

The Importance of Motivation

Performance is a function of both ability and motivation

A Framework for Motivational Theories

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Different perspectives on motivation – how people are motivated (Woods and West)	Specific theories	Categorisation (metaphors) used by Landy & Conte (2007)
To satisfy needs	Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Alderfer ERG theory Herberg's Two-Factor Theory	Person as machine: Behaviour is caused by unconsciousness processes - inner drives and external stimuli (rewards and punishment). People do not "think" about their behaviour.
By personal traits	McClelland's Theory of motivation (Needs for achievement, affiliation and power)	
By external stimuli [CH4, p84] [mostly linked to extrinsic motivation]	Behaviourism / learning theories	
In response to cognition of their work environment	Expectancy theory Goal setting theory	Person as scientist: People are consciously aware of their behaviour and able to reason. Their behaviour is intentional rather than automatic. However, people are not necessarily perfectly rationale.
By perceptions of fairness and justice	Equity theory Organisational justice	
By characteristics of their jobs [Linked to intrinsic motivation]	Job characteristics model	Landy & Conte discuss job characteristics in the context of interventions

Need Theories of Motivation

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

- People are motivated to fulfil their needs in a series of sequential steps

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- Higher needs become more dominant as lower ones become satisfied
- Managerial impacts
  - Stimulate the higher-order needs

Alderfer ERG Theory

- Simplification of Maslow's model of human needs
- Three basic groups of needs
  - Existence needs
  - Relatedness needs
  - Growth needs
- People are motivated by all three sets of needs simultaneously, but to varying degrees at different times

Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory (Motivation-hygiene theory)

Hygiene factors	Motivators
Also called, extrinsic motivators	Also called, intrinsic motivators
For example: pay, quality of supervision, work conditions, company policy and procedures	For example, achievement, advancement and promotion, recognition, nature of work and responsibility
When NOT met, this can cause dissatisfaction	Promote satisfaction

- Managerial implications
  - Not enough to reduce dissatisfaction

Motivation as a trait

McClelland's theory of motivation

Motivated by trait-like inner needs

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- Need for Achievement (*nAch*)
- Need for Affiliation (*nAff*)
- Need for Power (*nPow*)

People differ in the extent to which they are motivated by the 3 needs

Developed through life experiences

- How could achievement motivation be developed?

Need for achievement strongly linked to an entrepreneurial role

Atkinson: Achievement Motivation

Extension of McClelland's Theory

Achievement motivation a product of three factors:

- A person's level of need for achievement
- Perception of the probability of success in the task
- Intrinsic reward associated with accomplishment

Achievement motivation the highest when they perceive the odd of success as about 50%

Cognition and Motivation

Vroom's Expectancy Theory

Three factors that determine work effort

- Valence: The desirability of an outcome
- Instrumentality: The perceived probability that effective performance will result in the desired outcome
- Expectancy: The perceived probability that effort will result in the required level of performance

Effort or Force = V x I x E

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Goal Setting Theory

Prominent researchers: Locke and Latham

Features of goals that make them more effective:

- Goals must be specific and challenging
- Goals must be measurable
- Goals must be attainable

Why do goals motivate people? (i.e mechanisms by which goal setting promotes performance)

- Direct attention and effort towards activities
- Energise behaviour — lead people to expand effort
- Induce persistence and prolonged effort
- Influence the acquisition and use of task-relevant knowledge and strategies that increase the chances of success

Under what conditions do goals lead to motivation and performance?

- When individuals are committed to their goals
- When feedback on progress is provided
- The relationship between goal setting and performance is the strongest for low complexity tasks
- When situational constraints do not interfere

Marginal Implications:

- How management increases people's commitment towards their goals?
- Refer to the Expectancy theory and Atkinson's Achievement Motivation theory

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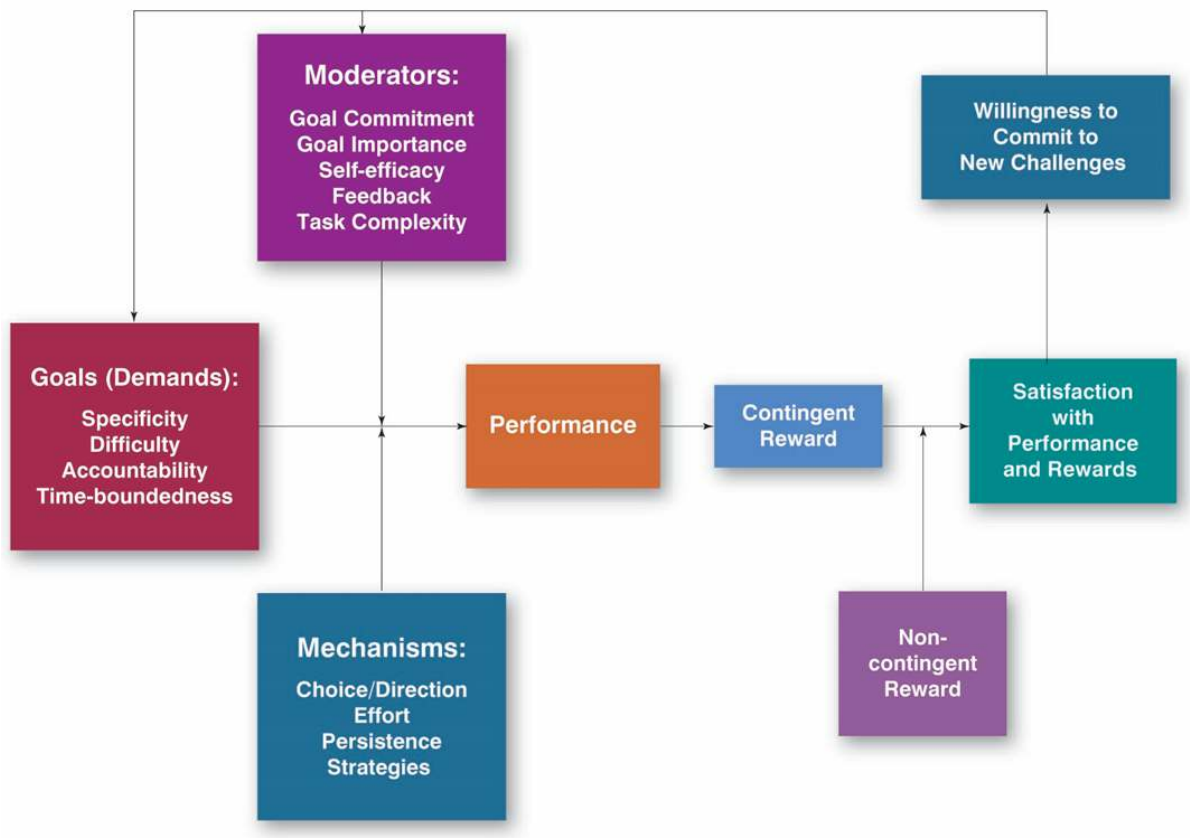

Goal Orientation (Individual Difference)

People tend to adopt one of two orientations in work-related (achievement) situations

Learning goal orientation (LGO) / also referred to as Mastery goal orientation	Performance goal orientation (PGO)
• View situations as opportunity to *self discover* and *self expression* • Focus: *Developing* competence • To: experience learning and growth (self-referent) • Beliefs: ability can be *developed* • Response pattern: Adaptive • "In the dust of defeat as well as the laurels of victory there is a glory to be found if one has done his best" Eric Liddell [Chariots of Fire]	• View situations as *ego threatening* or *enhancing* (*protecting the self*) • Focus: *prove* competence • To: obtain favourable evaluations from others (external referent) • Beliefs: ability is *fixed* • Response pattern: Maladaptive • "If can't win, I won't run!" Harold Abrahams [Chariots of Fire]

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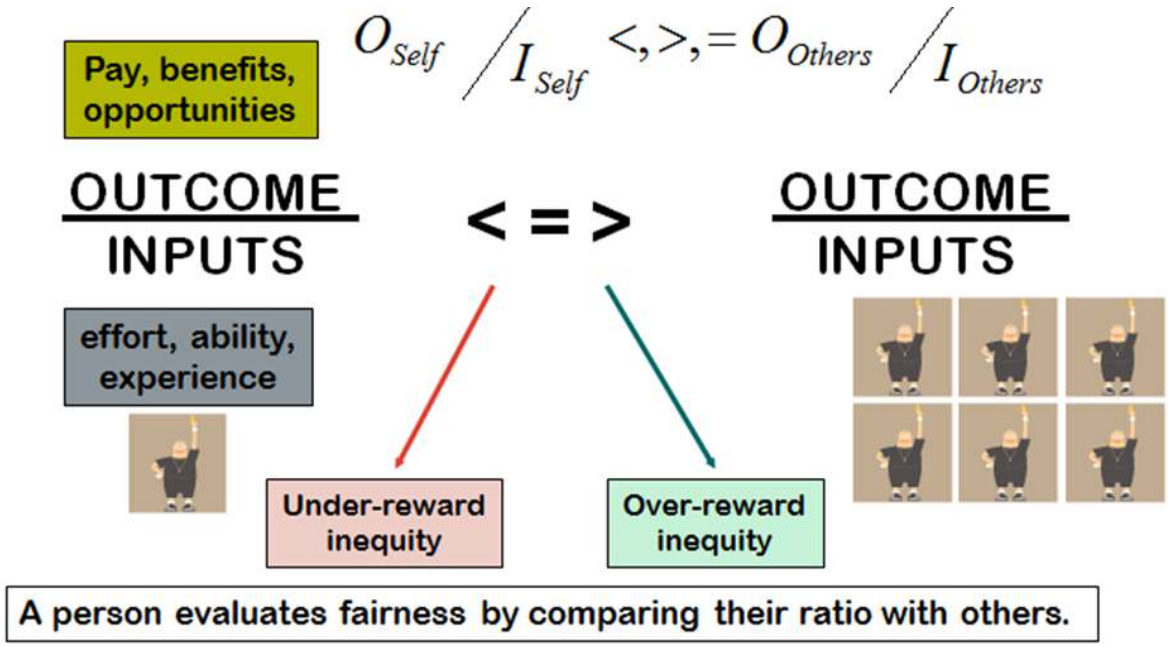
Treating People Fairly: Justice and Equity

Being treated unfairly can hurt, and be demotivating

The need for fairness and justice seems to be universal

However, people's perceptions of what is fair or not differs

Equity Theory



People compare themselves to others

Based on the perception of outcomes — input ratio

When experiencing inequity, people try to restore equity

Job Design and Motivation

Hackman and Oldman identify 5 job characteristics

1. Skills variety
2. Task identity
3. Task significance

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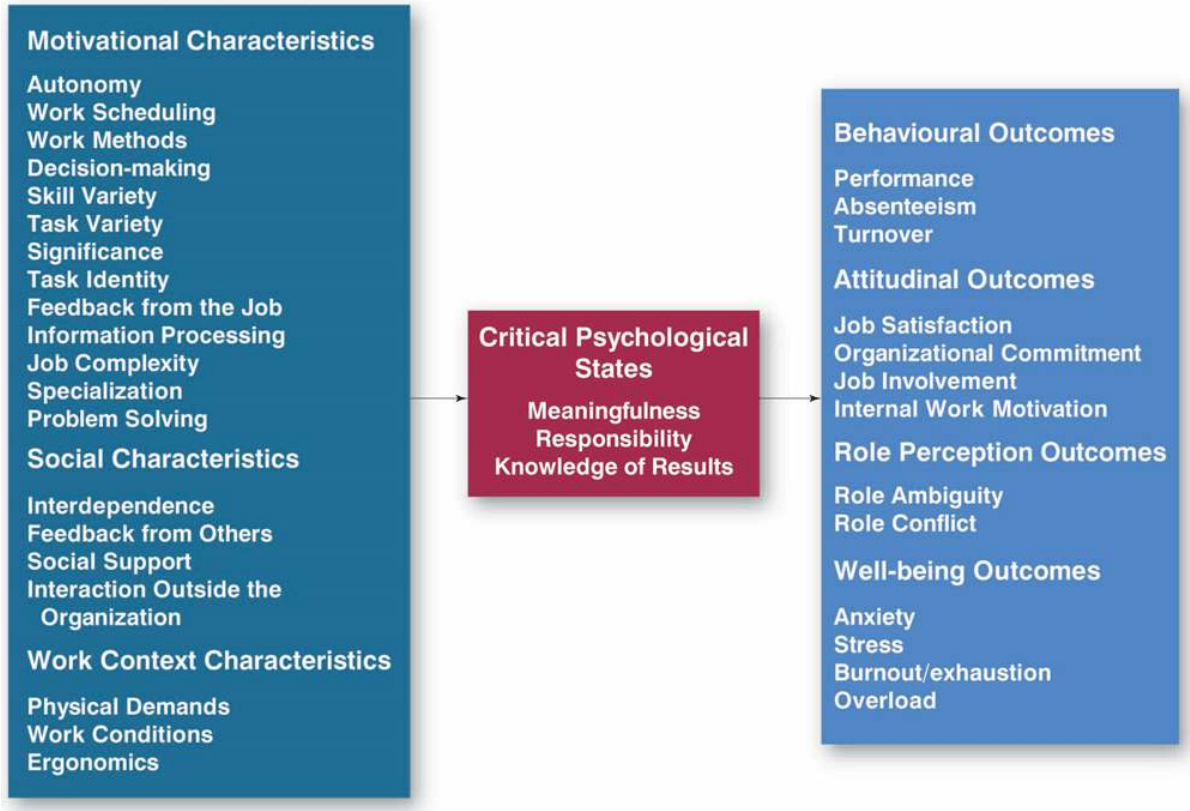
4. Autonomy
5. Feedback

How (by which mechanism) does these job features influence motivation?
It creates three work-related psychological states:

- Sense of personal responsibility
- Meaningfulness
- Knowledge of results

(Note the connection between environmental features and psychological states/reaction)

Job Characteristics, Psychological States and Work Outcomes



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Integrating Theories of Motivation

Practical Application: 5 Strategies

1. Remove the source of demotivation and treat people fairly
2. Ensure an abundance of valued outcomes of work
3. Set people's goals and objectives
4. Give people feedback
5. Design jobs in ways that make them rewarding to people

Theme 5: Human Resource Management Interventions

Human Resource Interventions: defined

This term Human Resource Management (HRM) interventions or simply HR interventions refers to the activities, practices and/or decisions by HR practitioners in partnership with line managers, that have the potential to make important contributions to improving people management processes and systems in business, resulting in better performance and effectiveness, and more positive psychological and physical health

I-O Psychology provides scientific explanations that informs the HR interventions [Theme 1]

HR Interventions: flow and stock

Milkovich and Boundreau [1994] distinguishes between two broad categories of human resource management interventions:

- Interventions aimed at the flow of employees in, through and out of the organisation [flow interventions]

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- Interventions aimed at the quality/nature of employees in their current positions [stock interventions]

Nature of HR Interventions: HR roles/practices

Performance Management

Compensations and Rewards

Industrial Relations

Learning, training and development

Recruitment and selection

Career Management

Work system designs and structuring

Health, Safety and Wellness

Recruitment and Selection

Competitive advantage lies in the ability of an organisation to attract, recruit and retain people especially in this era of globilisation and increased competition

An effective approach to recruitment and selection should have the following characteristics:

- Evidence-based
- Systematic
- Strategic

A model of the recruitment and selection process

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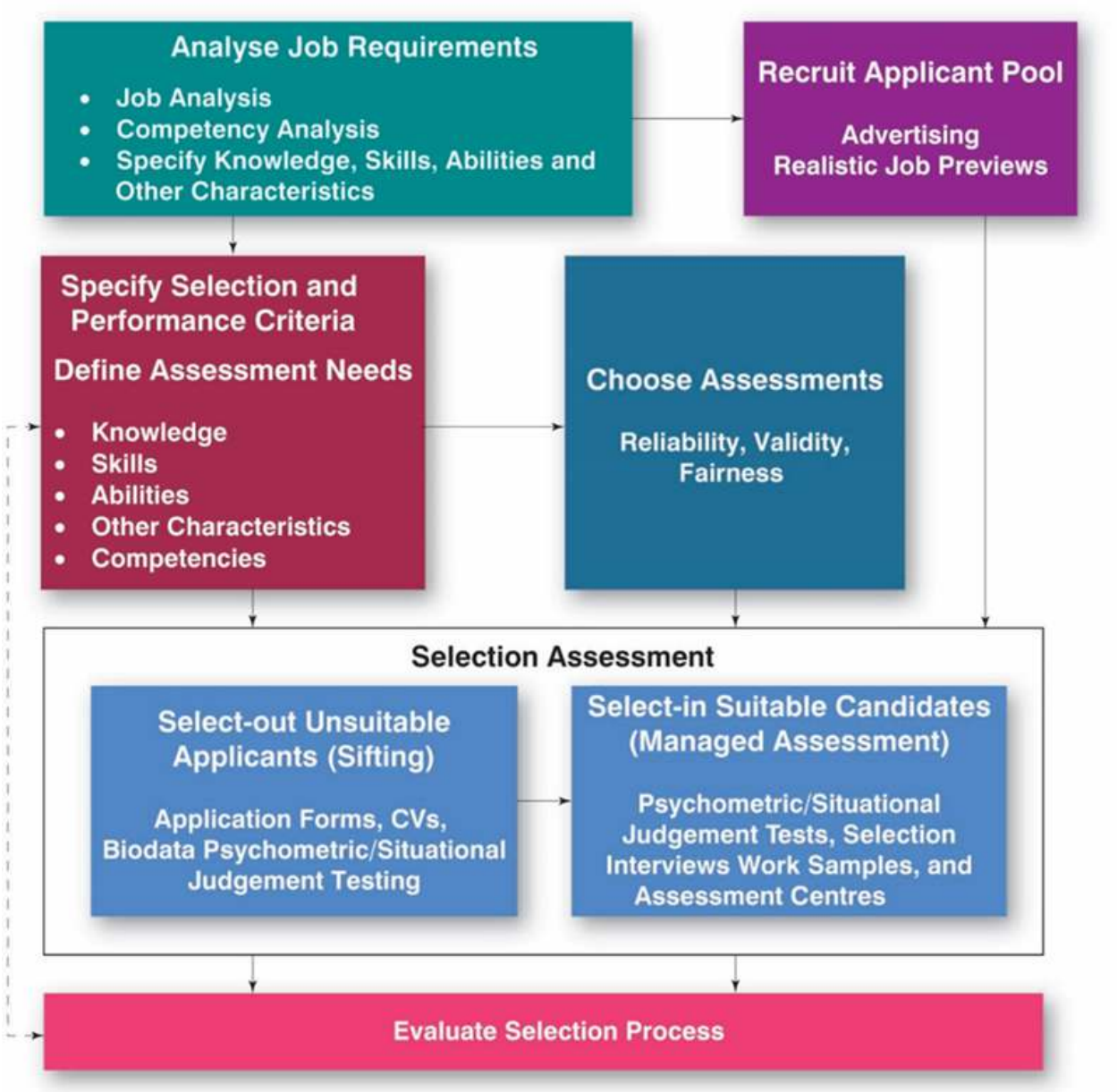

The recruitment and selection process should be aligned to other HR practices (for example, Training and Development and Compensation Management) in order to have a lasting impact

The R&C process should also encompass the influence of other organisational factors such as culture and leadership

Recruitment and selection in the context of other HR systems

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Systematic recruitment and selection: The role of the I-O Psychologist

I-O Psychologists contribute significantly to recruitment and selection through the development, improvement and evaluation of an array of assessment approaches and methodologies (assessments and psychometrics)

The aim is to reduce subjectivity of the process

The Recruitment and Selection Process

Job Analysis

- Job analysis is the systematic process of discovery of the nature of a job by dividing it into smaller units, where the process results in one or more written products with the goal of describing what is done on the job or what capabilities are needed to effectively perform the job
- The purpose is to determine the characteristics of the job and to use them to determine the knowledge, skills, abilities and other characteristics (KSAOs) that should be demonstrated by the employee
- End products
  - Job description — main task and responsibilities of the job
  - Job (person) specification — minimum KSAOs required to perform the job
- Use of scientific methods for job analysis is very critical

Job Analysis and Competency Modelling

- We see a large shift from traditional job analysis to competency modelling or profiling the last couple of decades

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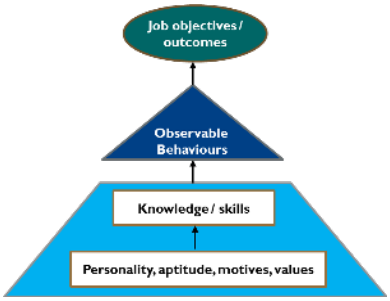
- Whereas KSAO refers to person characteristics, competencies refer to *observable* workplace behaviours, which, when displayed, leads to the achievement of job and organisational outcomes
- Competency modelling refers to the process of identifying competencies for a specific job or job family, or the construction of an overall framework for an organisation

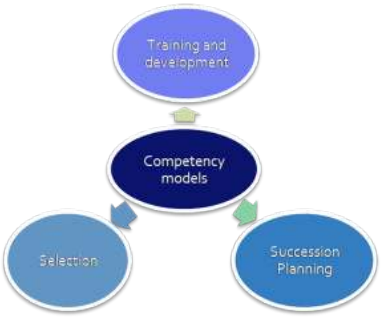
The relationship between competencies and KSAO

Competencies: observable workplace behaviours instrumental to the outcomes [above the iceberg: what we see]



The value of competencies

- Observable
- Measurable
- Linked to job and organisational outcomes
- Trainable
- Integrates different HR practices



Recruitment: attracting people to work

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- Recruitment can be defined as the process of acquiring applicants who are available and qualified to fill positions in the organisation
- Key STEPS in recruitment activities:
  - Recruitment Objectives
  - Strategy Development
  - Recruitment Activities

Selection: Assessing and hiring people

- Selection can be defined as the process of choosing from a group of applicants the individual best suited for a particular position
- Reliability and validity very critical

Selection: Methods

Different assessments have different purposes at different stages of selection:

- CV's, Application Forms, and Biodata
- Psychometric Testing
  - Cognitive Ability
  - Personality
  - Emotional Intelligence
- Selection Interviewing
  - Behavioural or competency based interviews
  - Situational interviews
- Assessment Centres
  - Multi-trait, multi-method approach

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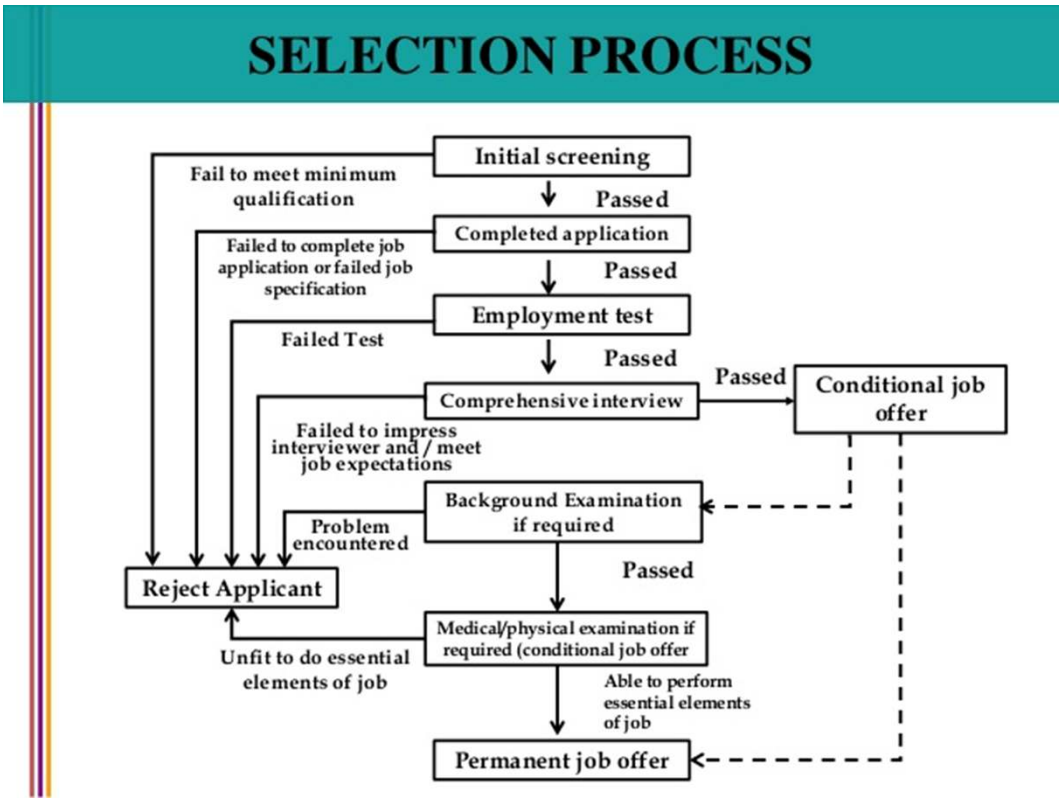

Utility Analyses

Utility analyses aims to estimate the financial benefits of improvements in selection procedures

Utility is a function of the:

- The validity of the process (i.e. the relationship between the predictor and criterion)
- The selection ratio (number of job positions to the number of applicants)
- The monetary value of different levels of job performance

Fairness in selection: South African context

Apart from reliability and validity, fairness is another critical consideration in selection

Care should be taken to address:

- Adverse Impact (could be an indication of indirect discrimination, while not necessarily the case)

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Relevant South African legislation:

- The Constitution of the Republic of SA
- Labour Relations Act No 66 of 1995 (amended) (LRA)
- Employment Equity Act No 55 of 1988 (amended, January 2014) (EEA)

Learning, training and development

Overview and link to organisational strategy

Learning , training and development serve a strategic function in organisation

Linked to strategic performance management as it is concerned with facilitating the development of people in ways that enable them to perform effectively

Learning and development also linked to other organisation-wide strategic issues:

- Provide overviews of KSAOs
- Provide information about interventions needed to achieve strategic goals
- Central to the implementation of change management

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Process and implementation

Overall, the learning and development process follows a cyclical process made up of 3 phases:

- Learning and Development Needs Assessment (Training Needs Analysis)
- Training Design and Delivery (L&D interventions)
- Training Evaluation

Learning needs Assessment

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Designed to identify where learning and development interventions are required in the organisation

The process generally comprises of the following 4 steps:

1. ORGANISATIONAL NEEDS ANALYSIS
    - Establish level of L&D support in the organisation
    - Understand the strategic direction of the organisation and align L&D to strategy
2. JOB AND POSITION ANALYSIS
    - Relevant positions in the organisation are identified and examined, including their nature and objectives
    - Working contexts are also examined (e.g. whether jobs are individual or team-based)
3. TASK, KSAO AND COMPETENCY ANALYSIS

    The focus here is on:

    - Defining the tasks required in the target positions
    - Defining the KSAOs and competencies required based on task requirements
4. PERSON ANALYSIS
    - Determining the gaps between the KSAO requirements of a position (job description) and the current KSAO profile of the job incumbent
    - Performance appraisal information is often used to determine the current KSAOs and competency levels of employees

Learning and Development Interventions

Once KSAO gaps are established, appropriate interventions can be decided upon to address them

Effective interventions requires an understanding of how people learn (Learning theories):

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- Behavioural and Social Learning Theories
- Cognitive Learning

The social learning and behavioural approach to learning facilitate learning in the following ways:

- Observational Learning — individuals learn new behaviours from the trainer (modelled by the trainer)
- Practicing of behavioural procedures in simulations
- Targeting individuals' affect and cognition by explaining the value of learning

The Cognitive approach facilitate learning in the following ways:

- Emphasising knowledge development
- Designing activities to facilitate problem solving based on the acquired knowledge
- Using more difficult problem solving scenarios to bolster and extend problem solving strategies

Techniques and methods for Training and Development

- Lectures
- Lecture and discussion
- Demonstrations
- Simulations
- Role-play
- Development Centres
- Case Studies (In-basket exercises)
- On-job training
- Coaching and Mentoring

Training Evaluation

Organisations need to determine the impact and benefits of training and learning interventions: a cost-benefit analysis

Evaluation focuses on two issues:

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- Defining evaluation criteria to judge the effectiveness of training
- Designing systematic methods and procedures for training evaluation

Evaluation criteria

- Kirkpatrick (1976) proposed the widely accepted four-level framework of evaluation criteria against which training should be evaluated:
    1. Reactions — trainee attitudes about the training they have received
    2. Learning knowledge: Knowledge, skills and abilities learned
    3. Behaviour: Changes in trainee behaviour (learning transfer)
    4. Results: Organisation and team-level performance outcomes

Success and Failure

Why does training and development succeed in some situations and fail in others?

Generally there are two broad categories of factors that can influence the success of training and development:

- Individual difference factors (Theme 3)
- Training transfer and organisational factors

Individual differences

Trainee characteristics: abilities, personality traits, demographics, interests and values

Intervening mechanisms that affect how individuals process information, focus attention, direct their effort and manage their affect during training

Attribute-treatment interactions, i.e. interaction between learning methods and individual differences

Pathway from individual differences to learning outcomes

Training transfer

Learning interventions are only really considered successful if the learning that has occurred is transferred to the working environment

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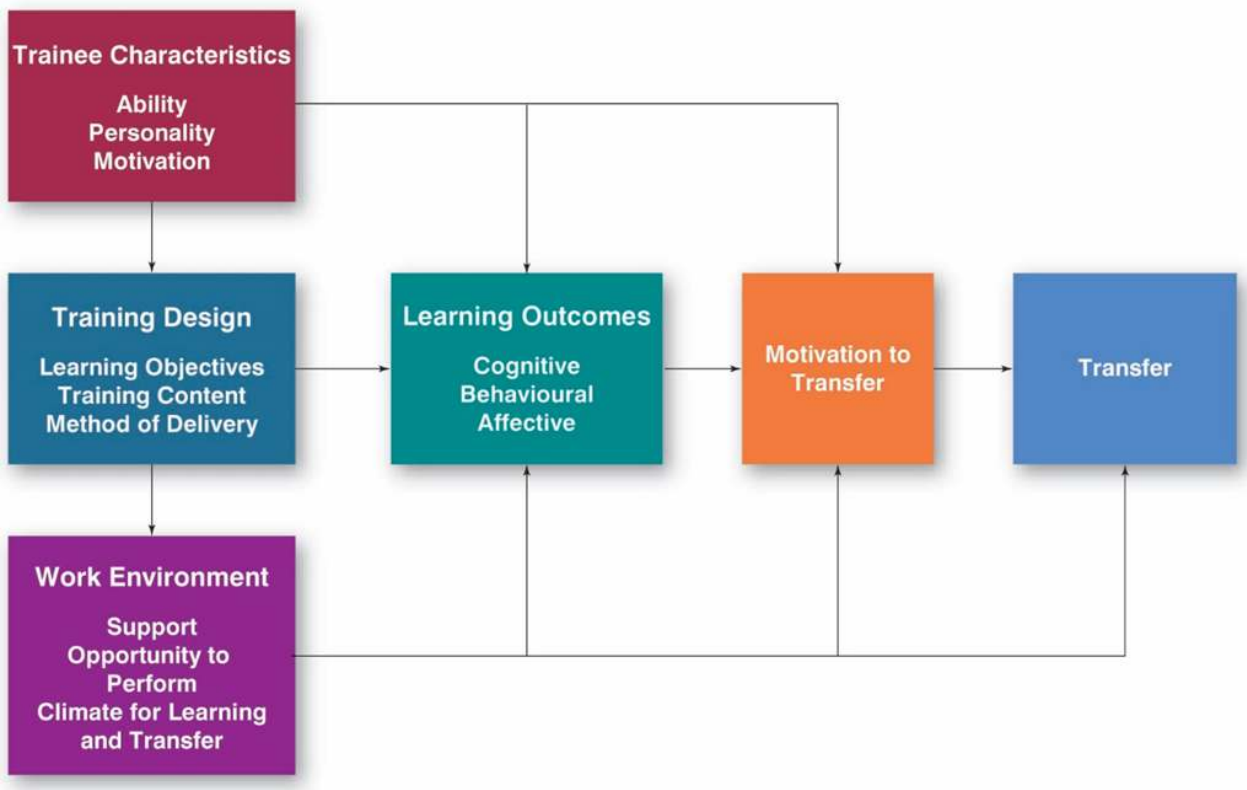
There are numerous factors that determine learning transfer:

- Trainee characteristics (individual differences)
- Training design
- Work environment
- The learning outcomes (behavioural, cognitive and affective)
- Motivation to transfer



Theme 6: Safety, stress and health at work

Occupational health and safety

The International Labour Organisation (ILO) and the World Heat (WHO) define occupational health as 'the promotion and maintenance of the highest degree of physical, mental and social well-being of workers in all occupations by preventing

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departures from health, controlling risks, and adapting work to people (physiologically and psychologically) and people to their jobs'.

Human Factors that impact Health and Safety

The term human factors refers to environmental, organisational and job factors, and human and individual characteristics which influence behaviour at work in a way which can affect health and safety

Organisational / Managerial

1. *Safety Culture*
    - Is the product of individual and group values, attitudes, perceptions, competencies and patterns of behaviour that determine the commitment to, and the style and proficiency of, an organisation's health and safety management
    - Also referred to as 'safety climate', it influences what is the normal behaviour of workers in a particular work unit in relation to taking risks, following rules, speaking up about safety
    - Any safety intervention should follow a safety culture assessment
2. *Managers' (senior & middle) Leadership style*
    - Particular styles of leadership are associated with better safety behaviours by workers and more favourable organisational safety performance such as decreased accident rates and increased safety compliance
    - The appropriateness of a particular style of leadership, and of certain leadership behaviours, may differ across levels of leadership and across different work settings
    - Most recommended managers' safety leadership model is the transactional / transformational model
3. *Communication*
    - Essential to workplace efficiency and for the delivery of high quality and safe work. It provides knowledge, institute relationships, establishes predictable behaviour patterns and is vital for leadership and team coordination

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- Communication problems (system, message or reception failures) can lead to errors which can occur as individuals fail to receive or to passion information or communicate incorrect information

Workgroup / Team

4. *Teamwork - structural processes (dynamics)*
    - Teamwork, communication and leadership are all critical to a safe environment
    - Good teamwork can help to reduce safety problems and it can improve team members' morale and well-being, as well as team viability
5. *Team leadership (Supervisors)*
    - Team leaders (supervisors) practice found to decrease the number of minor accidents and positively influence workers' safety climate perceptions
    - Transformational leadership behaviours of supervisors have related to fewer occupational injuries
    - Good communication, building trust and caring about the team members, as well as setting and reinforcing safety standards all important especially in the presence of strong production or cost-reduction goals

Individual Worker

- Psychological and physiological factors which can influence workers' behaviours that contribute to safety outcomes
- Main focus is on non-technical skills (cognitive, social and personal resource skills) that complement technical skills and contribute to safe and efficient performance
    - Cognitive (situation awareness and decision making)
    - Social (leadership and teamwork)
    - Managing personal resources (stress and fatigue)
6. *Situation awareness*
    - Refer to an individual's 'perception of the elements in the environment within the volume of time and space, the comprehension of their meaning, and the projection of their status in the near future'
    - Also referred to as perception or attention

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- Involves continuously monitoring what is happening in the immediate task environment in order to understand what is going on and what might happening the next minutes or hours
- The worker needs to have a good ‘mental model’ representing the status of their current task and the risks within the surrounding work environment
- Situation awareness extends to the tea performance
- Situational awareness and concentration are diminished by fatigue and stress and can be affected by interruptions and distractions

7. *Decision making*
    - On task (or operational) decision making is a critical component of workplace safety in relation to minimising errors
    - Decision making can be affected by fatigue and stress
8. *Stress*
    - Is the ‘adverse reaction people have to excessive pressure or other types of demand placed upon them’
    - Stress is determined by the balance between perception of the demands being placed upon the person (e.g. workload) against how she or he judges their available resources to cope with these demands (e.g. experience, skills)
    - Stress at work is linked to workplace safety, such as rates of accidents
    - Two types of stress: acute (intense and sudden) and chronic (long term)
9. *Fatigue*
    - The state of tiredness that is associated with long hours of work, prolonged periods without sleep, or requirements to work at times that are “out of synch” with the body’s biological or circadian rhythm
    - Sleep is essential for our wellbeing and lack of sleep is a prime cause of the experience of tiredness or fatigue
    - Most humans require an average of about eight hours of sleep per night to function effectively
    - Fatigue can have consequences for both the safety and productivity of workers

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- It has detrimental effects on cognitive performance which can fall to nearly 40% of baseline after two nights without sleep. A loss of two hours sleep can have detrimental effects on the performance of psychomotor tasks comparable to effects of drinking two or three beers
- Communication and social skills are also affected by sleep deprivation

Work Environment

- Equipment design is an important area of concern for safety (readability and usability of equipment, for example)
- Factors relating to equipment design and usability fall mainly within the domain or ergonomics

10. *Work environment and hazards*
    - Workplace hazards are a set of circumstances or a situation (risk) that could harm a person's interest, such as their health or welfare

Selected research findings on health and safety (Page 305)

Depression, anxiety and negative affects were associated with lower use of protective equipment

Contingent work had worse occupational health and safety outcomes in terms of injury rates and strain, compared to full-time work

Job insecurity was likely to be associated with workplace accidents and injuries due to its effect on job satisfaction and consequently safety behaviours

In terms of age, non-fatal injuries at work were found to be highest amongst young workers

Stress and strain at work

Cause, process and outcome?

The first model of stress was the Fight or Flight model by Canon (1929) — for acute stress

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The second model was the General Adaptation Syndrome (GAS) model by Seyle (1956) — effect of sustained or chronic stressors affect health

- Seyle distinguished between *distress* (harmful effects of demands) and *eustress* (the enjoyment of challenging demands)
- Three stages of stressor effect:
  - Stage 1 (Alarm stage): body produces an alarm reaction and secrets stress hormones
  - Stage 2 (Resistance stage): individual tries to adapt and cope
  - Stage 3 (Exhaustion stage): resistance decreases (burnout, illness, death)
- In recent years, more sophisticated models have been developed
- Kahn and Byoserie (1992) presented a model of *stressors, moderators, perception*s and *cognition's* and the consequences thereof (i.e. strains):
  - Causes (stressors)
  - Outcomes (strain)
  - Processed that mediate or moderate the relationship between stressors and strain

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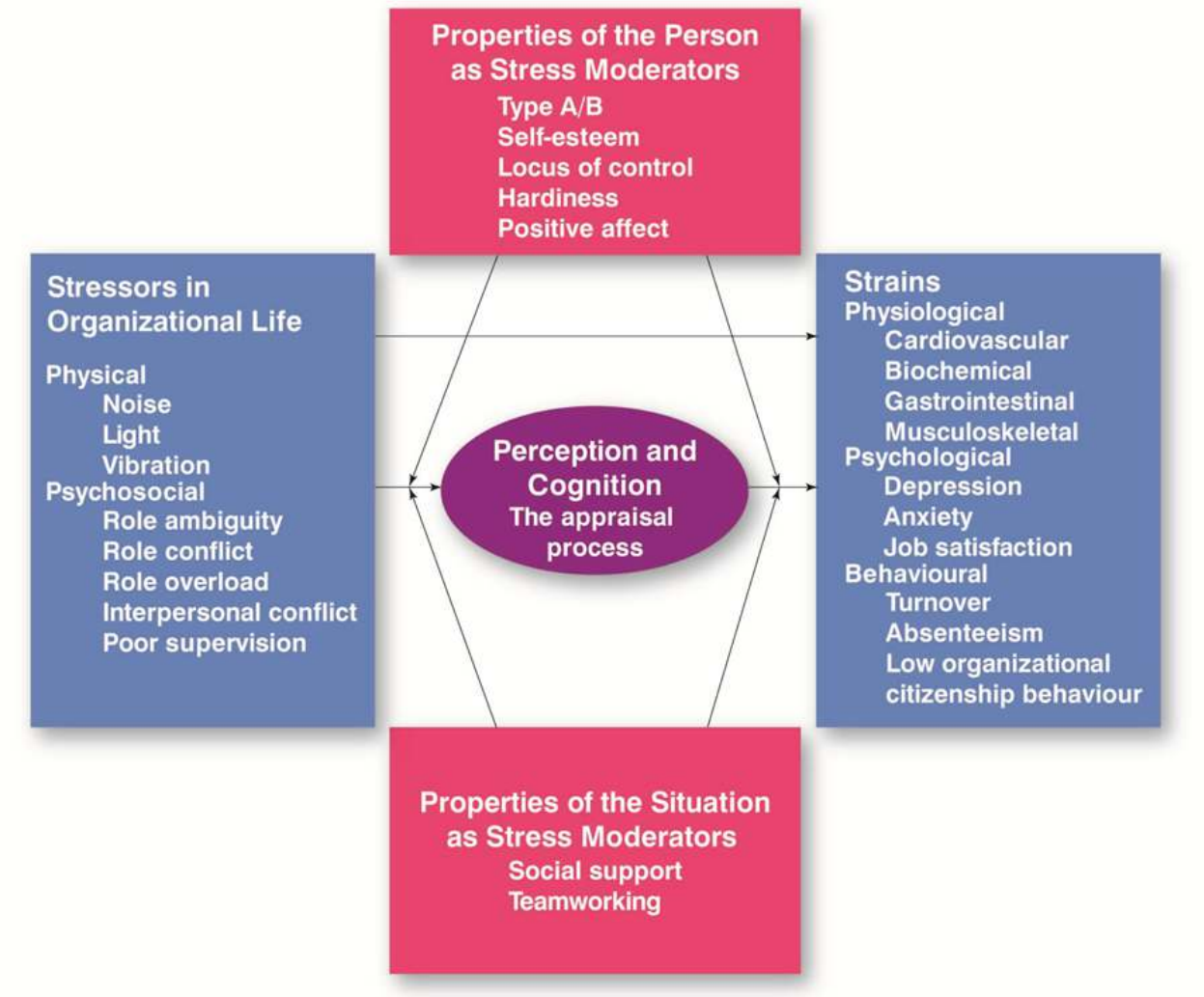

STRESSORS

Factors in the work environment that lead to strain

1. Physical Stressors
    - Noise
    - Temperature (too low or too high)
    - Physical demands (continuous lifting and vibration)
2. Psychosocial Stressors
    - Role conflict — describes a role where there are competing goals such as between quality of care and costs in health care

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- Role ambiguity
  - the degree to which a worker is unclear about the expectations of their own, or other's roles
- Role overload (workload)
  - quantitative workload (the number of tasks, customers, products to be dealt with)
  - Qualitative workload (complexity of the task)
- Interpersonal conflict
  - especially chronic conflict as opposed to acute (passing)
  - affects both team performance and personal well-being
- Poor supervision
  - = controlling, bullying and neglecting
- Work pace
  - speed of the line on an assembly line vs time (flight or call centres)
  - tasks with high repetition and short time cycles likely to result in repetitive strain
- Work schedule
  - shift work know to cause strain to varying degrees (sleep disturbance due to shift rotation)
- Time rigidity
  - flexitime reduces strain — more time spent with family
- Perceived control / Autonomy
  - includes control over hours, work pace and work environment
  - the most damaging jobs have a combination of high demands (volume and pace) with low control
  - Karasek (1979) Demand-Control Model

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        - Focuses on the balance of work between *demands* and *control* (decision latitude)
            - Control: the degree of autonomy and discretion for using skills
            - Demands: workload and intellectual requirements of the job
        - *High demands* and *low control* leads to health problems (waiters, assembly line workers, computer help desk etc.)
        - *High demands* and *high control* promotes good health (doctors, lawyers and senior managers)
        - *Low demands* and *high control* (e.g. gardener) likely to lead to peaceful and easy life
        - *Low demands* and *low control* (e.g. night watchman) deeply boring 'simply keeping an eye on things... and getting through the night'
- Emotional labour
    - The extent to which individuals at work have to merge their emotions
    - Suppressing emotions (through e.g. surface acting) is demanding and associated with burnout, absenteeism, turnover
- Task content
    - Police, ambulance workers, call centre workers
- Work-life conflict
    - Affects well-being
    - High work-life conflict related to lower job satisfaction, high emotional exhaustion and increased labour turnover

<u>Strain-consequences of stressors</u>

Can be divided into 3:

1. Behavioural

    Information processing:

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- Strain leads to deterioration in memory, recovery time, accuracy and task performance
- More errors on cognitive tasks (implications for health and safety)

Performance:

- Strain suggested to have an ‘inverted U’ relationship with performance — performance best at moderate levels of strain (not too low or too high)
- Absenteeism
- Turnover
- Poor work relations

2. Psychological
    - Burnout — commonly used to describe the psychological consequences of sustained stress at work
        - Refers to 3 sub-dimensions of strain: emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation and sense of ineffectiveness
        - It is the opposite of engagement
    - Depression
    - Family conflict
    - Negative attitudes
    - Psychological disorders
    - Decreased job satisfaction
3. Physiological
    - Sustained stress leads to chronic activation of sympathetic nervous system, leading to ill health due to excessive amounts of stress hormones circulating in the blood
    - Stress leads to gastrointestinal (digestive) problems
    - Biochemical — the stress hormones, cortisol and catecholamine, increases when the individual experiences strain
    - Blood pressure

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- Decreased immunity
- Cholesterol
- Headaches
- Prolonged exposure to stress can lead to death
- Substance abuse

Mediators

Perception and cognition (the appraisal process)

- How we see, think about and interpret the world also affects the stressor-strain relationship
- In other words, cognition's and perceptions affect the extent to which stressors translate into strain or not (e.g. giving a public speech)

Properties of the person as stress moderators

Type A/B personality type

- Personality Type A describes those people who have chronic struggle to obtain an unlimited number of poorly defined things from their environment in the shortest period of time and, if possible, against the opposing effects of other things or persons in the environment
- Personality Type B is described as relaxed, easy-going, patient and calm

Locus of control

- Internal locus of control moderates the relationship between stressors and strain (i.e. strong internal locus of control is associated with less strain)

Hardiness

- The extent to which people have orientations of commitment, control and challenge in their approach to their work lives

Positive affect

- Warm, positive, optimistic people are less likely to be affected by stressors than anxious people

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Properties of the situation as stress moderators

Social support

- Friends, family and colleagues

Recovery activities

- Participating in engaging activities such as sports, cooking and gardening as opposed to passive activities such like TV watching

Team-working

- Good team working

Properties of the person and of the situation combined

French, Caplan and Harrison (1982) Person Environment (PE) Fit Model

- The extent to which a person's skills and abilities match the job requirements and their work environment, the less strain will be experienced
- PE fit model has sub-components:
    - The person-job-fit: the extent to which the skills, abilities and interests of the individual are compatible with job requirements
    - Person-organisation fit: whether the values of the organisation are consistent with the values of the individual

<u>Three broad categories of stress intervention measures</u>

1. Primary Interventions
    - Stressor directed — aimed at eliminating, modifying or controlling the stressor
    - Ensuring, for instance, the right levels of heat, noise, etc
    - Problem focused approach — reducing noise, role ambiguity etc
    - Changing appraisals of stressors via cognitive restructuring — through e.g., training to change employees mental models about the stressors
2. Secondary interventions
    - More focused on people's responses

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- Focus is on the *employee rather than on changing aspects of the organisation*
- Common Strategies:
    - Training in stress management
    - Nutritional advice
    - Stress inoculation programmes — encouraging them to learn to relax, take physical fitness training
    - *Emotional-focused coping strategies* — encouraging employees to avoid, minimise or emotionally distance themselves from stressors
    - *Training in conflict resolution and negotiation skills*
    - *Stress inoculation programmes such as relaxation exercises*
- Social Support
    - 4 types of social support:
        - Emotional
            - Shoulder to cry on, an encouraging word and sympathetic understanding of another's emotional pain
            - Involves being active, open listener without giving advice, direction (just providing the other space for emotional expression)
        - Instrumental
            - Refers to practical 'doing' support among team members
        - Appraisal
            - Helping each other in the process of or interpreting a problem situation
            - Need not involve providing solutions, but rather helping the other person to examine a range of alternative appraisals of any given problem
        - Informational
            - Goes beyond just being warm, empathetic and caring to providing useful information to aid team members

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- *Buffer or moderator hypothesis* — proposes that social support can buffer people from the effects of strain at work

3. Tertiary interventions
    - Symptom-directed
    - Focus on helping individuals cope with the consequences of stressors
    - Again focuses on the individual rather than the organisation
    - Examples of interventions:
        - Medical aid (in-house or outsourced)
        - Employee assistance programmes (EAPs)

Job Engagement

- The opposite of burnout
- Defined as a positive work-related state of fulfillment that is characterised by vigour, dedication and absorption
- Affects both individual outcomes (e.g. well being) and organisational outcomes
- Predictors of job engagement
    - *Organisational support, job characteristics & procedural justice*
    - *Job meaningfulness* in terms of work variety and perceived benefit to the self (self-concept)
    - *Perceived fairness* in how the organisation manages people
- Job engagement is *described by five core elements*
    - Urgency
    - Focus
    - Intensity
    - Adaptability

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    - Personal initiative
- Job engagement is a consequence of four interacting elements:
    1. *Capacity to engage* — as a result of motivation and autonomy experienced on the job
    2. *Motivation to engage* — as a result of good job design
    3. *Freedom to engage* — presence of support and safety for employees to innovate and take action on their own initiative
    4. *Focus on the strategy and goals of the organisation* — existence of an alignment between what employees do and the strategic goals of the organisation

Ensuring a safe, stress-free and healthy workplace (and workforce) is part of an organisation's Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) and its also an ethical responsibility

Theme 8: Environmental features as facilitators and barriers of performance

Organisational Culture

- When you arrive in a new country for the first time you can very quickly learn about the people's culture by paying close attention, watching, listening and making some effort to discover
- But paying attention to what? Watching who/what? Listening to? And discovering?
- The same applies when you arrive at an organisation for the first time [Page 459]

Organisational Culture Defined

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Organisational culture is the set of shared, taken-for-granted implicit assumptions that members of an organisation hold and that determine how they perceive, think about and react to their environment

This is visible in the:

- Hierarchy
- Pay levels
- Job descriptions
- Norms
- Values and rituals
- Jokes and jargon
- The physical environment

Models of Culture

- There are many different theories/models of organisational culture
- Different models should not be viewed as competing theories but rather just as different viewpoints to that same phenomenon. The following models can be focused on;
    - Schein's Model
    - Goffee and Jones Model
    - The Competing Values Model

SCHEIN'S MODEL

- Views culture in terms of three different levels:
    - Espoused values — those elements that are captured in the mission statements, visions and company brochures
    - Artefacts — elements such as hierarchy, pay levels, documents, meeting practices, ritual celebrations etc
    - Basic hidden assumptions — those elements that tell us a great deal about the organisation's true values

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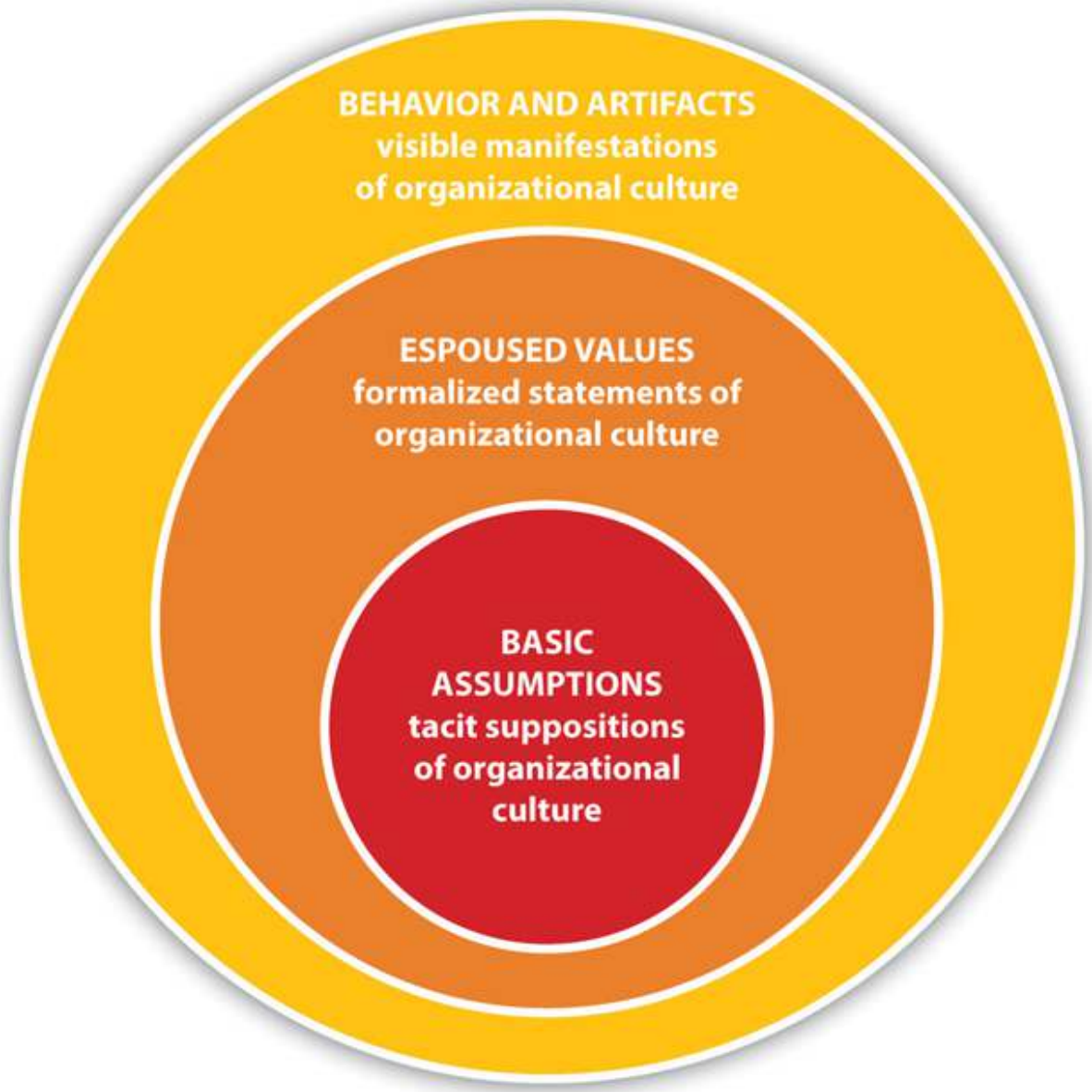

GOFFEE AND JONES: SOCIABILITY VS SOLIDARITY MODEL

- Goffee and Jones 919980 believe culture can be represented by two fundamental dimensions:
    - Sociability — sincere friendliness or the emotional non-instrumental relations among individuals who regard one another as friends (social relations)
    - Solidarity — refers to the emphasis on shared common tasks and goals (task performance)

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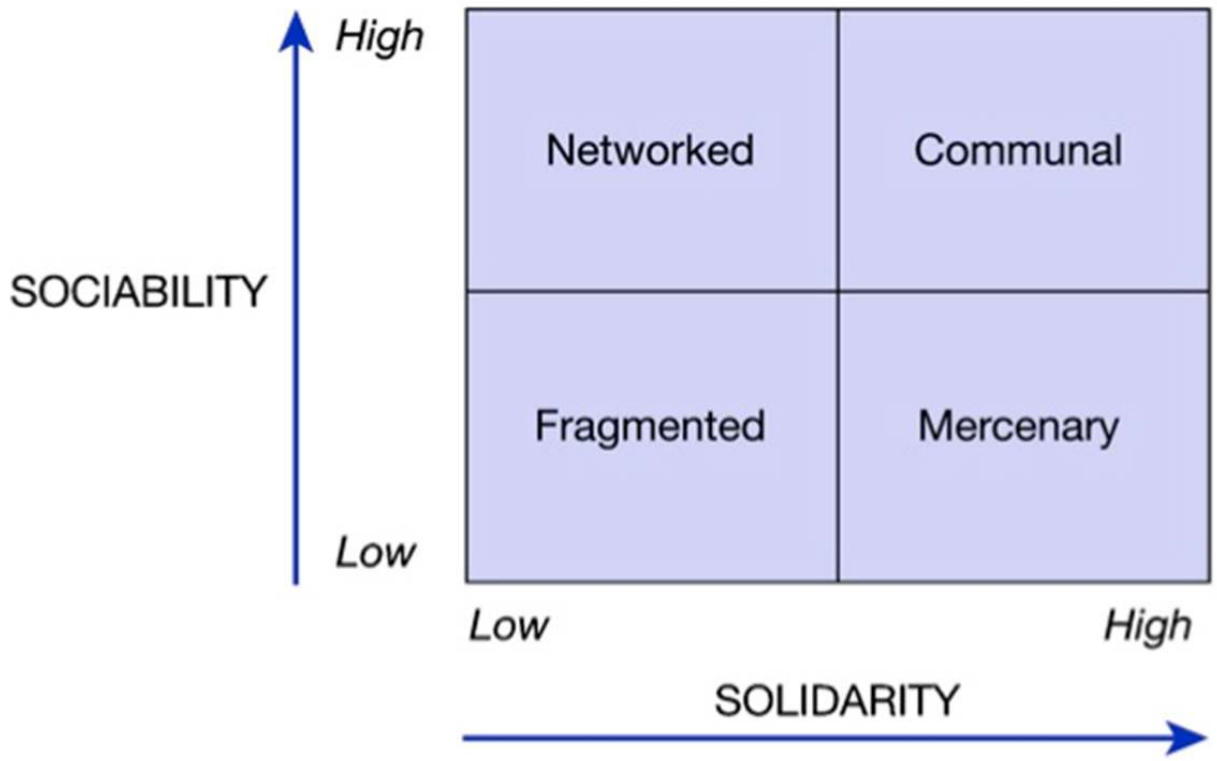
- The two dimensions can be represented by a two-by-two matrix of four possible configurations
  - Networked Organisation — high sociability and low solidarity. Emphasis is on warm, positive feelings and good social relations rather than on task performance
  - Mercenary Organisation — low sociability and high solidarity. High emphasis on productivity and performance with little concern with the quality of social relations
  - Fragmented Organisation — low sociability and low solidarity. Neither emphasise productivity nor quality of social relations
  - Communal Organisation — high sociability and high solidarity. High emphasis on both productivity and the quality of social relations



COMPETING VALUES MODEL

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- A relatively more complex two-by-two model (compared to the Goffee and Jones Model)
- The model incorporates into a single model two fundamental dimensions of effectiveness
  - Flexibility versus Control
  - Internal versus External orientation
- The result is a Four quadrant model
  - Internal orientation and low Flexibility (Internal process emphasis)
  - Internal orientation and high Flexibility (Human Relations emphasis)
  - External orientation and low Flexibility (Rational Goal emphasis)
  - External orientation and high Flexibility (Innovation emphasis)
- Each of the four quadrants present a set of valued outcomes and managerial ideology through which the outcomes may be achieved

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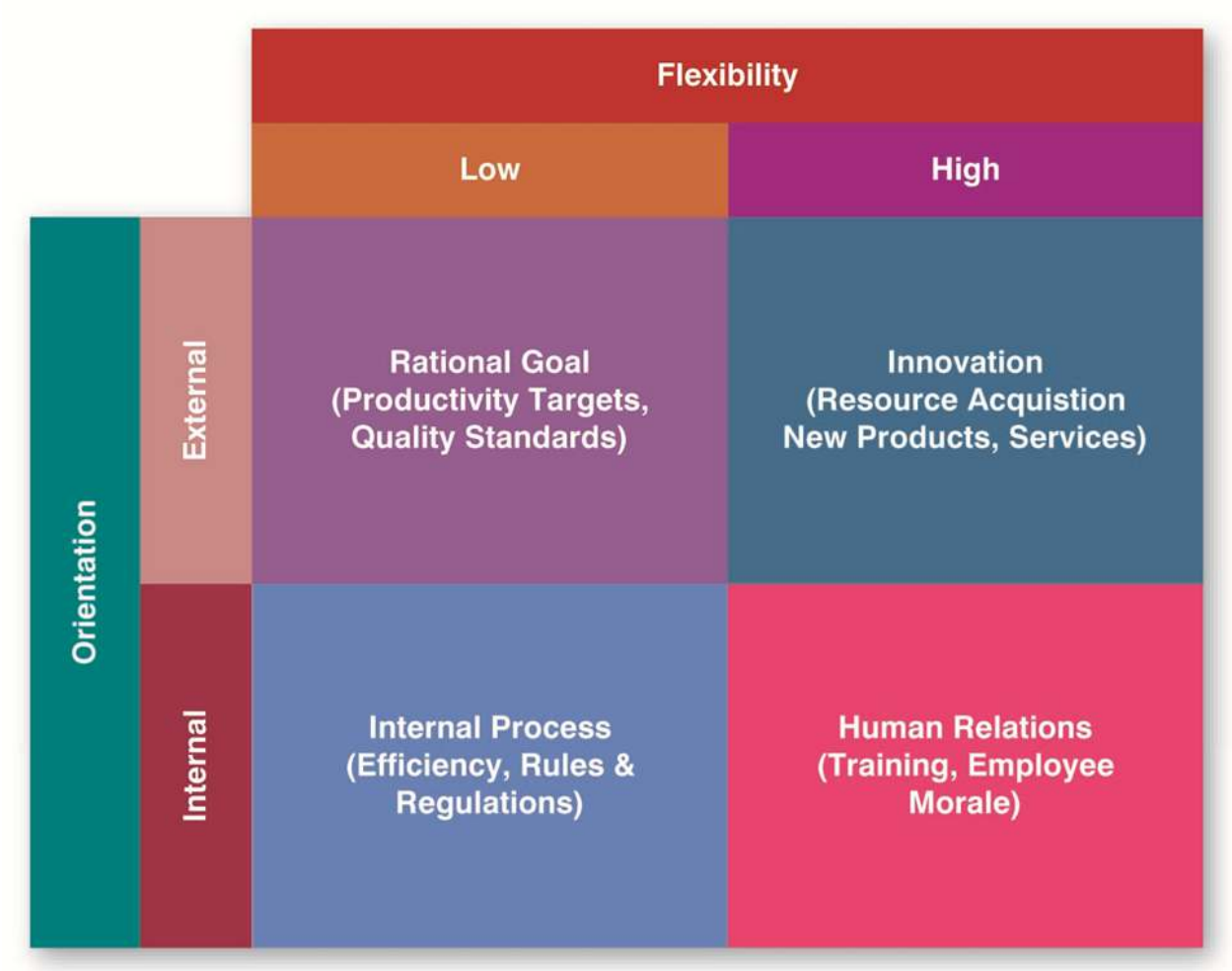

How do cultures develop?

- There are many factors that facilitates the development of an organisation's culture. Some of these factors include:
  - Leadership — what they say, the decisions they make and what they do all help to shape what the organisation stands for. Leaders are the custodians of organisational culture
  - The recruitment and selection process — what sorts of people are recruited, with what competencies and characteristics
  - Socialisation processes — refers to what employees especially new ones are told (explicitly or impliedly so) about the organisation and its expectations

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    - Globalisation — the culture of multinational corporations is also shaped by national cultures

- The organisation's cultural orientation will have an impact on performance-related factors such as customer service, teamwork, employee satisfaction and corporate social responsibility
- Corporate social responsibility (CSR) is a cultural value that emphasises the importance of organisations promoting business activities that bring simultaneous economic, social and environmental benefits. In essence, it involves considering and/or forging partnerships with other stakeholders other than stockholders, stakeholders that can also be affected, directly and/or indirectly, by the activities of the organisation. Some of these stakeholders include:
    - Other organisations
    - Community bodies
    - Unions (employees)
    - Consumers

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GLOBALISATION AND CULTURE

- Organisational culture occur (develop & evolves) in the context of national culture. The challenge for especially large multinational corporations (MNCs) is to strike a balance between ensuring that their cultural values are globally relevant but still locally appropriate at national levels
- Geert Hofstede points out FOUR underlying dimensions of national culture that potentially have a bearing on organisational culture:
    - Individualism — Collectivism
    - Power distance
    - Uncertainty avoidance
    - Masculinity — Femininity

Hofstede's Culturel Dimensions

Individualistic / Collectivistic	How personal needs and goals are prioritized vs. the needs and goals of the group/clan/organization.
Masculine / Feminine	Masculine societies have different rules for men and women, less so in feminine cultures.
Uncertainty Avoidance	How comfortable are people with changing the way they work or live (low UA) or prefer the known systems (high UA).
Power Distance	The degree people are comfortable with influencing upwards. Accept of inequality in distribution on power in society.
Time Perspective	Long-term perspective, planning for future, perseverance values vs. short time past and present oriented.

- Closely related to organisational culture is the concept of organisational climate
- Organisational climate can be defined as: Employees perceptions of the work environment. At individual level it can be referred to as psychological climate and when shared, *group* or *organisational* climate
- Organisational climate can also be viewed in terms of individual employees' interpretation of processes, practices and behaviours in the organisation and how this affects their sense of well-being. For example, an authoritarian supervisor will effect individual employees' well-being and ultimately group and organisational climate

CLIMATE VERSUS CULTURE

- Although overlap exists between the concepts, climate and culture, there are also distinct differences

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- Culture is what makes organisations distinctive;
- Organisational climate is 'what it *feels* like to work here'
- The climate can for example be experienced as friendly, competitive, laid back or authoritarian
- In summary, whilst climate refers to individuals' surface experiences and perceptions, culture shapes (often subtly) take-for-granted and unconscious assumptions about how to behave in the organisation and the meaning given to events

ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE, CLIMATE, BEHAVIOUR AND ORGANISATIONAL PERFORMANCE

- The organisation's cultural orientation will have an indirect (or direct) impact on performance-related [success] factors such as customer service, teamwork, employee satisfaction and corporate social responsibility
- Between the two (culture and climate), climate has a relatively more direct impact on performance-related factors — WHY?
    - Individual perceptions of climate affects attitudes [Theme 2] and motivation [Theme 4] both of which affects behaviour [Theme 2] and ultimately performance (individual, group and organisation — Theme 2)
- The individual, group and organisational experiences of employees (climate) can ultimately become part of *'how we do things around here'* (culture) and the culture can also recursively affect (feed back to) employee experiences (climate)
    - Work related behaviours and ultimately performance are affected
    - There are therefore cultures and climates that are more amenable with organisational success because they positively influence organisational performance (success) domains. Some of the success domains include:
        - Customer service
        - Quality
        - Involvement
        - Training
        - Information knowledge (both acquisition and transfer)

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        - Teamwork/organisation
        - Overall satisfaction

Organisational Change

- Organisations are like organisms — to survive and prosper they must adapt to their changing environmental circumstances
- There are a wide range of factors that can necessitate the need for organisational change:
    - Actions of competition
    - Government legislation
    - Environmental factors
    - Demographic factors
    - Ethics
    - Leaders or leadership
    - And many more...
- These factors can be classified as either internal or external to the organisation
- There are different models (explanations) of organisational change in terms of causes and processes
- There are different viewpoints (models & perspectives) on organisational change. Some of these include:
    - The Episodic vs Continuous change
    - The Systems perspective
    - The Learning perspective
    - The Forcefield Analysis of change

Models of Change

EPISODIC VS CONTINUOUS CHANGE

- Developed by Weick and Quinn (1999)

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- Believes there are two types of change:
  1. Episodic (Planned)
     - Is a planned and potentially revolutionary change
     - Aim is to make fundamental and lasting change in some organisation's functioning
     - The change is usually big, noisy and involves lots of resources in terms of time and money
     - Examples of this include restructurings, mergers and acquisition — all of which might lead to redundancies (and even large-scale retrenchments) in the workplace
  2. Continuous (Emergent) Change
     - Involves continuous (usually non-disruptive) improvements, encouraged by continuous reflection and learning
     - Can be achieved by encouraging all to be agents of change, i.e. take responsibility for change and learning in their respective work environments
     - Works better with flexible rather than bureaucratic organisational systems — freedom to change should be there

SYSTEMS PERSPECTIVE TO CHANGE

- The systems perspective is anchored in the systems thinking
- The perspective fundamentally makes an assumption that organisations are composed of a multitude of subsystems that vary in size and scope, and that change in one subsystem will lead to changes in other related subsystems
- The following are some examples of subsystems from literature:
  - Organisational goals and values
  - Technical subsystems
  - Psychosocial subsystems
  - Managerial subsystems

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    - The work itself including design, demands and rewards
    - The people including KSAOs
    - The formal organisation, that is, structure, procedures and policies
    - The informal organisation — power, influence, values and norms
- Different models have been developed to apply the systems perspective in managing organisational change. Some of these include:
    - The McKinsey 7S Model
    - The Burke-Litwin Model
    - The Complex-Adaptive systems model

The McKinsey 7S Model

- Designed by McKinsey Consultancy
- Is a framework that identifies seven interdependent systems in organisations
- Focuses on the internal issues in organisations and omitted the external environment
- The seven subsystems include:
    - **Strategy** — the organisation's long term mission and strategy
    - **Structure** — the way the organisation is structured
    - **Systems** — systems and procedures that govern the way things are done
    - **Shared values** — core values evident in the culture and norms
    - Style — leadership style of senior leaders
    - **Staff** — the staff of the organisation including motivation and satisfaction
    - **Skills** — the skills and competencies of the employees

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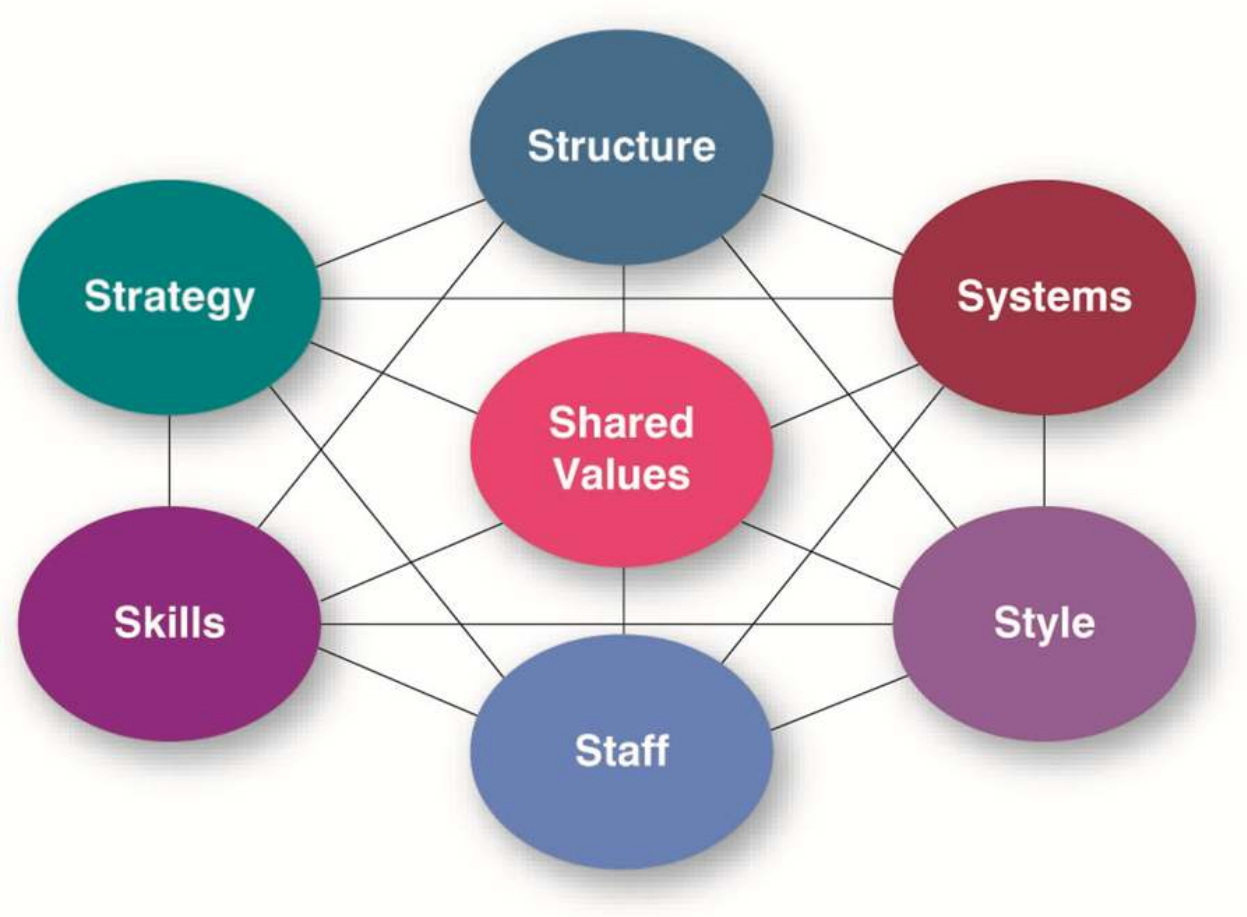

The Burke-Litwin Model

- One of the most useful models of organisational performance and change
- The key features of the model are:
  - The distinction between transformational factors (mission and strategy, leadership, organisational culture) and transactional/operational factors (structure, systems, management, practices and climate)
  - The external environment is the most powerful driver of organisational change
  - Changes in the external environment affect transformational factors and these in turn lead to changes in the transactional factors
  - Changes in the transformational and transactional factors together affect motivation, which in turn affects performance (individual, group & organisational)

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- Changes in any one of the twelve components will likely lead to specific changes in the others
- Transformational factors play a key role with regard to major change
- Transactional factors are important with regard to continuous improvement and optimisation

THE LEARNING PERSPECTIVE

- The perspective advocates for a pro-active approach to chnage and the creating of a culture within which learning happens continually at all levels
- Two notions that developed from this perspective:
  1. Action learning — proposes that organisations should continuously review their functioning, diagnose gaps between current and desired performance, identify objectives for change, implement change, evaluate the outcomes and institutionalise the whole approach
  2. The learning organisation — works to create, acquire and transfer knowledge in order that the organisation adapts itself continually on the basis of new knowledge and insight, as well as to the external factors that influence survival

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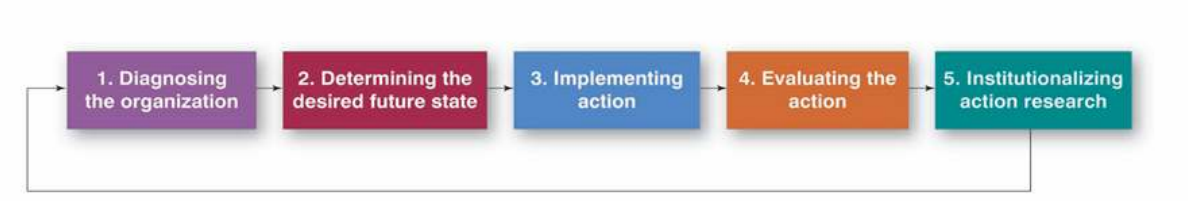
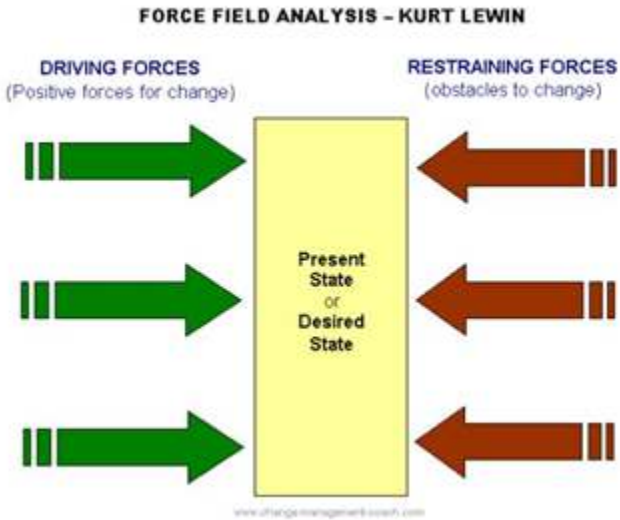

1. Diagnosing the organization
2. Determining the desired future state
3. Implementing action
4. Evaluating the action
5. Institutionalizing action research

THE FORCEFIELD ANALYSIS OF CHANGE

- Proposed by Kurt Lewin (1948)
- According to the Model, change occurs when:
  - The forces favouring change strengthen
  - Resistance to change lessens or
  - If both occur simultaneously
  - Otherwise organisations remain in equilibrium



<u>Designing and Implementing Change</u>

- RECALL [from the Burke-Litwin Model]
  - The external environment is the most powerful driver of organisational change

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    - Changes in the external environment affect transformational factors [mission and strategy, leadership, organisational culture]
- Leader and senior mamagement are central to the change process because they:
    - Initiate change in response to either internal (strength and weaknesses) and/or external factors (opportunities and threats)
    - … and also drive/lead change once its in motion
- This is particularly so because they occupy a strategic position in the organisation and are therefore the custodians of organisational strategy and culture, and thereby influence performance
- The challenge for the leadership of organisations and other change leaders (e.g. Industrial Psychologists) is to understand and manage change so that it is shaped to support the fundamental purpose of the organisation (sustainability) and to enable the effectiveness (performance) and flourishing (well-being) of those who work within and are served by the organisation
- Regardless of what triggers it, change is not always accepted by the organisation including individual employees
- Both the organisation and the employees can resist the change for different reasons

Employees' resistance to change

- Resistance to change by employees can help ensure that change is introduced wisely but it can also stand in th way of good and/or necessary change
- Employees can resist change for various reasons including the following:
    - Uncertainty and insecurity — about their future individually and/or collectively
    - Selective perception and retention — during change people tend to listen carefully and remember better the potentially threatening aspects
    - Misunderstanding — about the nature of the change and the consequences
    - Habit — *'we have always done it this way'; 'if its ain't broke, don't fix it'*
    - Perceptions that change pose threats to status, security, pay, job role or the social environment

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- Feels or know that change is unwise — not going to help us do better

Effective implementation of change: increasing the potential for success and decreasing the chances of failure

- A good change strategy and with good intention can fail if its not implented well
- According to John Kotter (1995), organisational change is less likely to succeed if the organisation fails to:
  - Establish a sense of urgency about need for change
  - Form a powerful guiding coalition
  - Create a vision of the benefits and value of the change
  - Communicate the vision to all affected by the change
  - Empower others to act on the vision
  - Plan for and create short-term wins
  - Consolidate improvements and produce still more change
  - Institutionalise new approaches

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